

THESIS COMMITTEE:

Dr. K.W. Chiu

Dr. K.K. Mark

Dr. Y.S. Woo

HYPOTENSIVE ACTIONS OF SOME CHINESE MEDICINAL PLANTS
- WITH EMPHASIS ON ACACIA CATECHU

BY

JAMES SUI-KIU SHAM

A THESIS SUBMITTED AS PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

JUNE, 1983

DIVISION OF BIOLOGY

GRADUATE SCHOOL

THE CHINESE UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG

443949

thesis

2V

770

Jc 6 S52



CONTENTS

Acknowledgement	1
Abbreviations	2
Abstract	3
Chapter one : General Introduction	4
Chapter two : Literature Review	
Section one : Hypotensive Chinese Herbal Medicinal	9
Section two : Hypotensive Active Principles in Medicinal Plants	39
Section three : Hypotensive Actions of the Medicinal Plants and some Known Active Principles Isolated from Them	56
Chapter three : Experimental Work	
Section one : The study of the Hypotensive Effect of Four Plant Extracts	65
Section two : The study on the Hypotensive Action of <u>Acacia catechu</u>	89
Section three : Preliminary Study on the Chemical Nature of the Hypotensive Substances in <u>Clematis chinensis</u>	124
References	132

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. K.W. Chiu for his guidance and encouragement throughout the course of this study. He introduced me the right attitude for scientific research and polished my personality with his virtues.

I wish to express my sincere thanks to Dr. P.K.T. Pang, Professor of the Department of Pharmacology, Texas Tech University, for his expert advices and the permission of using the facilities in his laboratory. I am also grateful to Miss M.C.M. Yang, Miss C. Benishin, Dr. R.L. Shew, Dr. P. Funsan, Dr. L. Yen and Mr. V.K.Y. Liu, who had taken care of me and gave me helpful suggestions during my stay in Lubbock.

I also wish to thank my colleague, Mr. W.K. Yip for his critical discussions. Last but not the least, my thanks are forwarded to the technician in the laboratory, Miss Vergonia Wong for her technical assistance.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THIS THESIS

MAP	Mean arterial pressure
AVP	Arginine vaspressin
ACE	<u>Acacia catechu</u> extract
CCE	<u>Calendula officinalis</u> extract
CCE	<u>Clematis chinesis</u> extract
SFE	<u>Sargassum fusiforme</u> extract

ABSTRACT

There is a large number of medicinal plants which are reported to be hypotensive. However, due to the lack of systematic studies, their action mechanisms are mostly unknown. In the present study, the hypotensive effect of four Chinese medicinal plants were examined. They were Calendula officinalis L., Acacia catechu (L.) Willd, Clematis chinensis Osbeck and Sargassum fusiforme (Harv.) Setch. The water extracts of these four plants produced a dose-related decrease in MAP. The potencies and durations of response produced by these extracts were different. Except for Calendula, the hypotensive effect of these plant could not be ascribed to the magnesium, potassium and calcium ions present in the plant tissue.

The hypotensive action of Acacia extract (ACE) was further studied in more detail. It produced a dose-related decrease in the blood pressure of both anesthetized dogs and rats. In blocker studies, the hypotensive action of this plant extract was found not mediating via the following: the α -adrenoceptor, β -adrenoceptor, muscarinic receptor, histamine-1, -2 receptor, the central nervous system. Captopril infusion potentiated the hypotensive responses by prolonging the duration of the response. It also relaxed

the isolated rat tail arteries in the AVP or methoxamine precontracted condition. Furthermore, positive chronotropic and inotropic effects of ACE were demonstrated in the isolated rat atrium.

It is concluded that the hypotensive effect of ACE is ascribed to the presence of hypotensive peptide/s or protein/s, which produce vasodilatation.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

4

Disease is an unseparable twin of life. In order to battle against this devil, human being acquires a wide spectrum of knowledge and develops a highly sophisticated system -- medical sciences. However, in the ancient world, before all the modern sciences blossomed, man could only get the helping hand from the Nature. Plants, due to their availability, diversity and their close relation with mankind, are inevitably noted and tried by man in therapeutic purposes.

The use of medicinal plants in the treatment of diseases in China is as ancient as the Chinese History. At first, the knowledge was perhaps passed on among generations and gradually these information were recorded. The first book of the Chinese medicinal plants to appear is the 'shennong pentcao' (神農本草) dated in the late Han Dynasty, about 100 A.D. After that, many books were available and nearly all of them bore the name 'pentcao' which means herbal. These literatures seemingly provide valuable information on ethnotherapeutics (1,2).

Although phytotherapy has been developed in China for such a long time, due to the lack of systematic studied and related knowledge from other branches of life sciences, the nature of the therapeutic properties of herbal medicines was completely unknown. Furthermore, the Chinese herbalists

were so varied in their competences; their mystical explanations on diseases and drugs made people feel skeptical to this ancient "treasure".

On the contrary, western phytochemists began their studies of the chemical compositions of plant materials in the early nineteenth century. From that time onward, a large number of substances with high biological activities were isolated. These included cholinomimetic alkaloids, such as pilocarpine, muscarine and arecoline from Pilocarpus sp., Amanita muscaria and areca catechu respectively; antimuscarinic alkaloids, e.g. atropine and scopolamine from Atropa belladonna; adrenergic neuron blocking alkaloid, e.g. from Rauwolfia serpentina Benth.; ganglionic stimulating alkaloids, nicotine and lobelia, from Nicotiana tabacum and Lobelia inflata respectively; neuromuscular blocking agents, curare, from Chondrodendron sp.; local anesthetics, cocaine, from Erythroxylon coca; opioid analgesics, morphine, from Papaver somniferum; central nervous stimulants, picrotoxin, theophylline, caffeine and theobromine, from Anamirata cocculus and Thea sinensis; aspirin-like drug, salicin and colchicine, and Salix alba and Colchicum autumnale; cardiac glycosides from Digitalis purpurea; anti-malaria drug, quinine, from cinchona plants; and antimetabolites, vinca alkaloids, from Vinca rosea Linn.(3).

Being stimulated by the western scientists, Chinese scientists, who ^{are} equipped with western techniques on one hand and the vast amount of informations accumulated for thousands of years on the other, began extensive researches on the phytochemistry and pharmacology of medicinal plants. In the past three decade, they isolated and synthesized many active compounds which can now shown to serve as antitumor, cardiovascular, contraceptive, anesthetics, sedative, CNS stimulatory, anti-bronchitis, anti-microbial, antiviral, anti-inflammatory, anti-hepatitis and anti-parasitic drugs (4,5).

It is beyond any doubt that the plant kingdom represents an inexhaustible source of new chemical compounds, many of them possess high biological activities. The late discovery of reserpine, such an efficient drug of plant origin against hypertension, was the turning point, in the view of most scientists, on the role of medicinal plants in contemporary medicine and the possibility of extracting rational grains from traditional medicine (7).

The present study examines the alleged hypotensive effect of some Chinese medicinal plants belonging to different families and I hope to contribute to a better understanding of the pharmacology of these plants, and of hypertension itself.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

SECTION ONE

HYPOTENSIVE CHINESE HERBAL MEDICINE

Hypertension is the most widespread cardiovascular disease. Since it is very damaging and leads to severe diseases, such as angina pectoris, coronary occlusion, arteriosclerosis, cerebral hemorrhage (stroke) and renal disease, it becomes one of the focus of contemporary medicine. Thanks to the efficient drugs produced in the last two or three decades, doctors today can prevent the worsening of the disease upon diagnosis in many patients and save thousands of lives (8). However, healing or recovery of the patients (in essential hypertension) remains ~~yet~~ to be seen. Many patients have to be prescribed with drugs and/or dietary restraint till the end of their lives. This fact alone generates an ever growing interest in finding and producing more effective new drugs for the therapy of this disease.

General Problems Associated with Chinese Medicinal Plants

Traditional informations on Chinese medicinal plants may give hints to the finding of new drugs. In fact, there are more than 200 species of plants in the Encyclopedia of Chinese Drugs which are reported to be hypotensive and/or antihypertensive. However, when we speak about the possible application of traditional medicine, we should identify the positive principles in them. One of the greatest difficulties in decoding traditional medicine's indications is insufficient specificity. For instance, some herbs are recommended for the treatment of

"women's diseases" which includes dozens of different diseases requiring different treatments. Indeed it represents a whole branch of medicine, i.e. gynecology. It is often said that this or that herb is helpful in the treatment of hydropsy, i.e. oedema and ascites. However, the causes of development of oedema and ascites might be the result of heart, kidney, liver, endocrine, metabolic or other disease (7). It is essential to verify the data in the traditional medicine by using various experimental models and based on these scientific data, classify the plants according to their ability to ameliorate various types of diseases.

Another difficulty is the identification of the medicinal plants. It is not unusual to note that the common name of a Chinese medicinal herb may represent plants of different genera or even different families. For instances, jin qian cao (金錢草) may be known to represent Glechoma longituba (Kakai) Kupr, Lysimachia christinae Hance, Dichondra repens Forst, Hydrocotyle sibthorpioides Lam. var. batrachium (Hance) Handl.-Mazz. or Desmodium styracifolium (Osbeck) Merr. but in fact these belong to family Labiatae, Primulales, Convolvulaceae, Umbelliferae and Leguminosae respectively (9). This may be due to the fact that the herbal collectors do not have a good training in identifying the medicinal plants or, more probably, they are taught with different school of taxonomy. However, it is interesting that these five different plants all share

two common therapeutic properties: anti-fever and diuretic (10). This suggests that some plants with similar properties are used as substitutes in some places where the original plant species is unavailable. So, for the elucidation of the medicinal properties of a particular plant, knowledge of its botanical and pharmacognostical aspects is necessary. Of the common Chinese medicinal plants being sold in drug stores these have been dried for the convenience of storage, transfer etc. This makes either the pharmacognostical or botanical studies difficult. In the final analysis, the various chemical constituents (chemotaxonomy) in these medicinal materials are of prime importance. But, unfortunately, information on this aspect is scarce in most cases.

Special attentions have to be paid to the different parts of the medical plants, only certain parts of the plants possess the therapeutic properties. Furthermore, different floral parts may have quite different pharmacological actions, e.g. the fruit of Ligustrum lucidum Ait. is cardiogenic and diuretic, while its leaves have anti-microbial actions (11).

The traditional regimens of Chinese medicine rarely consist of a single drug, they are in the form of combinations. The combinations basically follow three principles: 1) Effectiveness can be increased by using combination of drugs of similar

properties, e.g. the inflorescence of Chrysanthemum indicum L. together with the whole plants of Taraxacum mongolicum Hand.-Mazz.: their anti-fever action will be increased. 2) Effectiveness can be increased by the interaction of drugs of different properties. For example, the root of Astragalus baicalensis together with root nodules of Poria coca (Schw.) Wolf. can promote the actions of invigorate the spleen, promote vital energy and diuresis. 3) The addition of a drug to antagonize the toxic or side effect of the other can promote the therapeutic value of the other drugs. For instance, the root of Zingiber officinale Rosc. can deprive the toxic effect of Pinellia ternata (Thunb.) Breit. and synchronize its anti-vomiting and phlegm-controlling actions (12). These combinations show further complications for unravelling the already masked properties of Chinese medicinal plants.

Selection of Research Materials : Some Guiding Principles

The plants reportedly effective in producing hypotension are listed in Table 2.1.1, herein after they are referred as hypotensive plants. There are 345 species and 234 genera belonging to 94 different families, among Phaeophyta, Eumycetes, Lichens, Bryophyta, Gymnospermae and Angiospermae. Most of these hypotensive plants are angiosperms, and the ten largest families of these hypotensive plants are: Compositae, Apocynaceae, Leguminosae, Rubiaceae, Ranunculaceae, Liliaceae, Menispermaceae,

Umbelliferae and Berberidaceae (Table 2.1.2). All except Lilaceae (monocot) are families of dicotyledonous plants.

Plants that are closely related phylogenetically usually have similar chemical compounds. Gottlieb (13) studied the occurrence of biological active chemicals in Brazilian angiosperms. He showed that the specific biologically active compounds are quite systematically located in the plant kingdom and thus it is possible to predict the existence of these useful chemicals in the related plant taxa. With this idea, I have assigned the hypotensive plants into Dahlgren's system (14) of classification to see any coincidence of their distribution with the evolutionary rationale. It is reasonable to surmise that the hypotensive and other therapeutic properties of Chinese herbal medicines are ascribed to the presence of active chemical components in the plant material, despite many groups of chemicals are involved (see next section).

The analysis of Fig. 2.1.1 shows that Ranunculiflorae (57 species) Cronquist's (15) subclass of Magnoliidae, and Asteriflorae (39 species) and Gentianiflorae (41 species)

Cronquist's subclass of Asteridae are the most popular superorder of the hypotensive plants (Table 2.1.3). This agrees with Gottlieb's finding that most of the biologically active compounds are produced by the primitive Magnoliidae or

the advanced Asteridae (13). However, the present finding also shows a wide distribution of hypotensive plants in Rosidae (27 species in Rosiflorae and 17 species in Rutiflorae), which seems to have relatively few useful compounds in their Brazilian counterpart.

In the study of the Chinese medicinal plants, I think it would be quite unprudent if one neglect their "traditional" classifications. One of the "traditional" system separates the plants according to their flavors and their natures. There are basically five different flavors: acrid, sweet, bitter, sour and salty. It might seem superficial to classify a drug according to its flavor, however, in Chinese medicine each of these five flavors represents a distinct group of pharmacological properties. Acrid plants can induce sweating, promote "vital energy circulation" and alleviate pain. Sour plants can stop sweating and have astringent property. Sweet plants can "invigorate vital energy" and "enrich the blood". Bitter-flavored plants have the properties of "purging fire", depriving the "evil wetness" and stopping diarrhea. Salty-flavored plants have the effects of softening the dry faeces and "relaxing the bowels". There are some plants with no distinct flavor which are known as the bland flavored plants, and which usually possess diuretic and edema-relieving properties (12,16).

With reference to their flavors, the hypotensive plants are divided and listed in Table 2.1.4. Since some plants possess more than one flavor, so a single plant may appear in more than one category. The most popular flavor is bitter, which includes 42.77% (189 species) of the hypotensive plant population. The sweet and acrid flavors are the second and the third popular groups which represents 25.67% (113 species) and 22.62% (100 species) respectively.

The Chinese medicinal plants can also be divided into four natures: cold, hot, cool and warm. The nature of a plant is mainly determined by its therapeutic effects. Generally speaking, plants with cold and cool natures are used for anti-fever, purging fire and detoxication, while plants with hot and warm natures are employed for expelling cold, warming the interior and restoring Yang (扶陽). Besides these four natures, there are some plants which have the properties in between cool and warm, and are known as mild-natured plants (12,16).

In Table 2.1.5, the hypotensive plants are classified according to their natures. Although not all natures of the listed plants are known, they still reflect their distribution in the traditional system. 34.33% (103 species) of the hypotensive plants are cool in nature and 16% (48 species)

are the cool nature plants. They constitute about half of the hypotensive plant population. The another half consists of warm-nature and mild-nature plants, which represent 26% (78 species) and 22.67% (68 species) respectively. There is only one percent (3 species) of plants belonging to the hot-nature plants. It should be noticed that the cold-nature plants are usually with bitter flavor and they both share the property of purging fire. The plants which are bitter with cold nature, solely occupy 19.10% of the hypotensive plants. A previous study conducted by chinese investigators found that 77.3% of the 136 kinds of hypotensive medicinal drugs of either plant and animal origin belonged to the cool and cold-nature drugs, while 11.4% of them belonged to the warm-nature drugs. This coincides with the traditional clinical experiences, that hypertension is a warm disease and is therefore treated with cold and cool-nature drugs.

It is now beyond any doubt that the plant kingdom can function as a great and valuable source for exploring potent hypotensive drugs, leading to the ultimate cure of hypertension. I hope the information from traditional Chinese medicine can give some clues for this great search.

Table 2.1.1 Plants with Hypotensive Actions

Laminariaceae		
<u>Ecklonia kurome</u> Okan.	leaves *	salty with cold nature **
<u>Laminaria japonica</u> Aresch.		
<u>Undaria pinnatifida</u> (Harv.) Sur.		
Sargassaceae		
<u>Sargassum fusiforme</u> (Harv.) Setch.	whole plant	bitter and salty with cold nature
<u>Sargassum pallidum</u> (Turn) C. Ag.		
Polyporaceae		
<u>Ganoderma lucidum</u> (Leyss. ex Fr.) Karst.	whole plant	sweet with mild nature (18)
<u>Ganoderma japonicum</u> (Fr.) Lloyd.		
Cladoniaceae		
<u>Cladonia alpestris</u> (L.) Rabht.	lichen mass	bland with mild nature
<u>Stereocaulon paschale</u> Hoffm.	lichen mass	bitter with cold nature
Usneaceae		
<u>Usnea longissima</u> Ach.	rhizome	bitter and sweet with mild nature
<u>Usnea diffracta</u> Vain.		
<u>Dermatocapon miniatum</u> (L.) Mann.	lichen mass	bitter and bland with mild nature (19)
Equisetaceae		
<u>Equisetum arvense</u> L.	whole plant	bitter with cold nature
Aspidiaceae		
<u>Cyrtomium fortunei</u> J. Sm.	root	bitter with cold nature
<u>Dryopteris laeta</u> (Kom.) C. Chr.	root	bitter with mild nature
Cycadaceae		
<u>Cycas revoluta</u> Thunb.	seed	sweet with mild nature (20)
Pinaceae		
<u>Abies sutchuerensis</u> (Franch.) Rehd. et. Wils.	fruit	acrid with mild nature
Cupressaceae		
<u>Biota orientalis</u> (L.) Endl.	young shoot and leaves	bitter with cold nature

* Active part of the plant

** Properties of the plant

Piperaceae			
<u>Piper longum</u> L.	root	acrid with warm nature	
Salicaceae			
<u>Salix babylonica</u> L.	leaf	bitter with cold nature	
Juglandaceae			
<u>Juglans regia</u> L.	leaf	sweet with warm nature	
Fagaceae			
<u>Lithocarpus polystachyus</u> Rehd.	leaf	sweet	
Casuarinaceae			
<u>Ephedra sinica</u> Stapf.	root	sweet with mild nature	(6)
Eucommiaceae			
<u>Eucommia ulmoides</u> Oliv.	bark	bitter and sweet with warm nature	(21,22)
Moraceae			
<u>Ficus carica</u> L.	receptacle	sweet with mild nature	
<u>Cannabis sativa</u> L.	seed	sweet with mild nature	
<u>Morus alba</u> L.	young shoot,	bitter with mild nature	
	root and root	sweet with cold nature	(6)
	bark		
Urticaceae			
<u>Urtica angustifolia</u> Fisch. ex. Hornem.	root	bitter and acrid	
<u>Urtica cannabina</u> L.			
Loranthaceae			
<u>Viscum album</u> L.	stem and leaf	sweet and bitter with mild nature	(7,23)
<u>Viscum articulatum</u> Burm. f.	stem	acrid with mild nature	
<u>Viscum coloratum</u> (Kom.) Nakai	shoot leaf	bitter and sweet with mild nature	
<u>Loranthus parasiticus</u> (L.) Merr.			
<u>Loranthus yadoriki</u> Sieb.			
<u>Gardenia jasminoides</u> Ellis	fruit	bitter with cold nature	
Aristolochiaceae			
<u>Aristolochia contorta</u> Bge.	fruit or root	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Aristolochia debilis</u> Sieb. et. Zucc.			
<u>Asarum heterotropoides</u> F. Schm. var.	whole plant	acrid with warm nature	
<u>mandshuricum</u> (Maxim.) Kitag.			
<u>Asarum sieboldii</u> Miq.			

Polygonaceae

Fagopyrum esculentum Moench

leaf

sour with cold nature

Polygonum aviculare L.

whole plant

bitter with cold nature

Polygonum chinense L.

whole plant

sour and sweet with cool nature

Polygonum hydropiper L.

whole plant

acrid with mild nature

Chenopodiaceae

Salsola ruthenica Iljin.

whole plant

bitter with cool nature

Salsola collina Pall.

whole plant

bland with cool nature

Amaranthaceae

Achyranthes bidentata Bl.

root

bitter, sweet and sour

Achyranthes aspera L.

whole plant

bitter and acrid with cold nature (24)

Celosia argentae L.

fruit

bitter with cool nature

Caryophyllaceae

Stellaria saxatilis Buch.-Ham.

whole plant

hot

Cerastium viscosum L.

whole plant

sweet

Malachium aquaticum (L.) Fries.

whole plant

sweet and bland with mild nature

Euphorbiaceae

Phyllanthus emblica L.

root

sweet with cold nature nature (20) (20)

Magnoliaceae

Magnolia liliflora Desr.

bark

bitter with cold nature

flower bud

acrid with warm nature

Magnolia denudata Desr.

flower bud

acrid with warm nature

Talauma mexicana

flower and seed

23)

(23)

Lauraceae

Cinnamomum cassia Presl.

bark

bitter and sweet with hot nature

Lindera umbellata Ramus

root bark

warm nature nature (25)

(25)

Ranunculaceae

Aconitum carmichaeli Debx.

root

acrid with hot nature

Aconitum kusnezoffii Rehb.

root

bitter and sweet with cold nature

Cimicifuga acerina (Sieb. et. Zucc.)

root

Tanaka

Cimicifuga dahurica (Turcz.) Maxim.

stem

acrid, sweet and bitter with cold nature

<u>Cimicifuga foetida</u> L.			
<u>Cimicifuga heracleifolia</u> Kom.			
<u>Cimicifuga simplex</u> Wormsk.	Wormsk.	root	acrid, sweet and bitter with cold nature
<u>Clematis chinensis</u> Osbeck	Osbeck	root	acrid and salty with warm nature
<u>Coptis chinensis</u>		root	bitter with cold nature
<u>Coptis deltoidea</u> C.Y. Cheng et. Hsiao			
<u>Coptis omeiensis</u> (Chen) C.Y. Cheng			
<u>Coptis teetoides</u> C.Y. Cheng			
<u>Paeonia lactiflora</u> Pall.	Pall.	root	sour, bitter with cold nature
<u>Paeonia obovata</u> Maxim.			
<u>Paeonia suffruticosa</u> Andr.	Andr.	root bark	acrid and bitter with cool nature
<u>Paeonia veitchii</u> Lynch	Lynch	root	sour and bitter with cold nature
<u>Ranunculus chinensis</u> Bge	Bge	whole plant	bitter with warm nature
<u>Solanum nigrum</u> L. var. <u>pauciflorum</u>		whole plant	bitter with cold nature
<u>Thalictrum foliolosum</u>		root	bitter with cold nature
<u>Thalictrum baicalense</u> Turcz.			
<u>Thalictrum rhynchocarpum</u> Dill & Rich.		root	(24)
Berberidaceae			
<u>Berberis amurensis</u> Rupr.	Rupr.	root, shoot	bitter with cold nature
<u>Berberis poiretii</u> Schneid			
<u>Berberis thunbergii</u> D.C.			
<u>Berberis sargentiana</u> Schneid			
<u>Berberis brachypoda</u> Maxim.			
<u>Berberis dictyophylla</u> Franch var. <u>epruinosa</u> Schneid		root bark	bitter with cold nature
<u>Berberis heteropoda</u> Schrank	Schrank	bark	bitter with cold nature
<u>Epimedium grandiflorum</u> Morr.	Morr.	stem and leaf	acrid and sweet with warm nature
<u>Epimedium brevicornum</u> Maxim			
<u>Epimedium sagittatum</u> (Sieb. et. Zucc.) Maxim.			
<u>Leontice robustum</u> (Maxim.) Diels		root	acrid with warm nature

<u>Mahonia bealei</u> (Fort.) Carr.	leaf	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Mahonia fortunei</u> (Lindl.) Fedde			
<u>Mahonia japonica</u> (Thunb) D.C.			
Menispermaceae			
<u>Aristolochia fangchi</u> Wu.	root	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Aristolochia heterophylla</u> Hemsl			
<u>Cocculus laurifolius</u> D.C.	whole plant	---	
<u>Cocculus trilobus</u> (Thunb.) D.C.	root	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Diploclisia chinensis</u> Merr.	shoot	bitter with mild nature	
<u>Menispermum dauricum</u> D.C.	stem	---	(26,27)
<u>Sabia japonica</u> Maxim.	shoot	bitter with mild nature	
<u>Sinomenium acutum</u> (Thunb.) Rehd.			
<u>Stephania cepharantha</u> Hayata	root	acid and bitter with cold nature	
<u>Stephania delavayi</u> Diels.		bitter and acid with cold nature	(7)
<u>Stephania japonica</u> (Thunb.) Miers	whole plant	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Stephania tetrandra</u> S. Moore	root	bitter with cold nature	
Nymphaeaceae			
<u>Nelumbo nucifera</u> Gaertn.	embryo	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Nymphaea tetragona</u> Georgi.	flower	---	
Papaveraceae			
<u>Chelidonium majus</u> L.	whole plant	bitter and acid with warm nature	
	with flower		
<u>Corydalis decumbens</u> (Thunb.) Pers.	whole plant		
<u>Dactylicapnos scandens</u>	root		
Cruciferae			
<u>Capsella bursa</u> (L.) Medic	whole plant	sweet with mild nature	(20)
<u>Erysimum cheiranthoides</u> L.	whole plant	sour and bitter with mild nature	
<u>Erysimum aurantiacum</u> (Bge.) Maxim.			
Crassulaceae			
<u>Sedum multicaule</u> Wall.	stem and leaf	acid and sweet with cold nature	
<u>Sedum kantschaticum</u> Fisch.	whole plant	sour with mild nature	

Pittosporaceae

Pittosporum blabratum Lindl. Lindl. root bitter bitter and acrid with warm nature

Rosaceae

Crataegus pinnatifida Bge. var. major fruit or leaf sour and sweet with warm nature
N.E. Br.

Crataegus cuneata Sieb. et. Zucc.

Crataegus oxyacantha leaf leaf and blossom sweet with cool nature nature(?) (7)

Crataegus monogina

Malus pumila Mill. fruit fruit sweet with sweet with cool nature

Leguminosae

Acacia catechu (L.) Willd.

shoot shoot and leaf bitter with cold nature

Arachis hypogaea L.

stem stem and leaf ---

Astragalus chrysopterus Bge.

root root sweet with warm nature

Astragalus dasyanthus Pall.

dasvanthus Fall(?)

Astragalus floridus Benth.

(7)

Astragalus membranaceus (Fisch.) Bge.

Astragalus mongholicus Bge.

Astragalus tongolensis Ulbr.

Caesalpinia crista L.

leaf leaf bitter with cool nature

Caragana sinica (Buc'hoz) Rehd.

Fehd. root acrid and bitter with mild nature

Cassia occidentalis L.

L. fruits bitter with cool nature

Cassia tora L.

seed seed bitter and sweet with cool nature (20)

Piptanthus concolor Harrow

Harrow seed sweet and bland with cold nature

Pueraria lobata

lobata root sweet with mild nature (A) (4)

Sophora japonica L.

flower flower bitter with cool nature

Thermopsis alpina Ledeb.

Ledeb. root bitter with cold nature

Vicia faba L.

L. flower with sweet with mild nature

Sterculiaceae

Helicteres angustifolia L.

L. whole plant bitter with cool nature

Sterculia scaphigera Wall.

A'all. seed sweet and bland with cool nature

Malvaceae

Hibiscus rosa-sinens

rosa-sinens flower sweet with cold nature

Geraniaceae

Geranium macrorrhizum L.

rhizome

bitter with mild nature (7)

Zygophyllaceae

Nitraria sibirica

fruit

sweet, sour and salty with warm nature

Peganum harmala L.

seed

bitter with warm nature

Tribulus terrestris L.

fruit

bitter and acrid with warm nature

Rutaceae

Casimiroa edulis

seed

(23)

Citrus erythrosa Tanaka

fruit coat

acrid and bitter with warm nature

Citrus tangerina Hort. et. TanakaEvodiae fruitus

fruit

Evodia rutaecarpa (Juss.) Benth.

fruit

acrid and bitter with warm nature

Phellodendron amurense Rupr.

bark

bitter with cold nature

Phellodendron chinense SchneidToddalia asiatica (L.) Lam

root

acrid and bitter with warm nature (6)

Zanthoxylum bungeanum

fruit coat

acrid with warm nature

Burseraceae

Olea europea

leaf

(7)

Anacardiaceae

Anacardium occidentale L.

fruit

sweet with mild nature (24)

Sapindaceae

Cardiospermum halicacabum L.

whole plant

bitter with cold nature

Sapindus mukorossi Gaertn.

fruit

bitter with mild nature

Sapindus trifoliatus L.

Celastraceae

Celastrus orbiculatus Thunb.

stem

acrid with warm nature

Aquifoliaceae

Ilex pubescens Hook. et Arn.

root

sweet and bitter with mild nature (4)

Rhamnaceae

Ziziphus jujuba Mill. var. inermis
(Bge.) Rehd.

fruit

acrid with warm nature

seed

sweet with mild nature

root bark

astrigent with warm nature

Caricaceae

Carica papaya L.

young leaf

(24)

Passifloraceae

Adenia cissampeloides (Planch. ex Benth.) Harms

Cactaceae

Echinocereus triglochidiatus Engelm. whole plant
var. neomexicanus (Standley)
Standley ex W.T. Marshall

Engelm.

whole

plant

(31)

Combretaceae

Terminalia arjuna

bark

bark

(28)

(28)

Araliaceae

Aralia elata (Mig.) Seem.

Seem.

bark

acrid

acrid with mild nature

Panax ginseng C.A. Mey

Mey

root

root

and

bitter and sweet with warm nature

Panax pseudo-ginseng Wall. var.

root

bitter

bitter and sweet with warm nature

notoginseng (Burkill) Hoo & Tseng

flower

sweet

sweet with cool nature

(29,30)

Umbelliferae

Anethum graveolens L.

L.

leaf

acrid

acrid with warm nature

Angelica sinensis (Oliv.) Diels.

Diels.

root

root

acrid with warm nature

(32,33,34)

Apium graveolens L. var. dulce D.C.

D.C.

whole plant

sweet

sweet and bitter with cool nature

Oenanthe benghalensis (Roxb.) Kurz.

Kurz.

whole plant

acrid

acrid with cool nature

Oenanthe javanica (Bl.) D.C.

D.C.

whole plant

sweet

sweet with cold nature

Ligusticum wallichii Franch.

Franch.

root and shoot

acrid

acrid with warm nature

Peucedanum arenarium

Peucedanum

root

and

bitter and acrid with cool nature

(7)

Pyrolaceae

Pyrola rotundifolia L.

So

whole

whole plant

bitter and sweet with warm nature

Ericaceae

Andromeda polyfolia

poly

leaf

folia

leaf

(7)

(7)

Rhododendron micranthum Turcz.

Turcz.

stem, leaf

acrid

acrid with warm nature

and flower

Rhododendron molle (Bl.) G. Don.

Don

fruit

bitter

bitter with warm nature

inflorescence

acrid

acrid with warm nature

Myrsinaceae

Ardisia japonica (Horrs.) Bl. stem and leaf bitter with mild nature

Lysimachia vulgaris L. var. davurica (Ledeb.) E. Knuth. whole plant ---

Maesa indica Wall. whole plant bitter with cool nature

Primulaceae

Lysimachia barystachys Bye. whole plant bitter and sour with mild nature

Lysimachia hattiana Hance whole plant ---

Lysimachia insignis Hemsl. whole plant bitter and acrid with warm nature

Plumbaginaceae

Plumbago indica L. stem, leaf and flower acrid with warm nature

Ebenaceae

Diospyros kaki fruit bitter (6) (6)

Symplocaceae

Symplocos caudata Wall. leaf sour and sweet

Oleaceae

Ligustrum japonicum Thunb. var. pubescens Koidz. leaf bitter and sweet with cool nature

Loganiaceae

Mostuea hirsuta (Anders ex Benth) Baill. ex Bak. root (24)

Gentianaceae

Swertia heterantha Ling. whole plant sweet and bitter with mild nature

Gentiana crassicaulis Duthie ex. Burkill root acrid and bitter with mild nature

Gentiana macrophylla

Gentiana scabra Bge. root bitter with cold nature

Gentiana tibetica King root acrid and bitter with mild nature

Gentiana triflora Pall. root bitter with cold nature

Apocynaceae

Alstonia yunnanensis Diels. root ---

Apocynum venetum L. whole plant sweet and bitter with cool nature

<u>Catharanthus lanceus</u>	leaf and roots	---	(35)
<u>Catharanthus roseus</u> (L.) G. Don.	whole plant	bitter with cool nature	
<u>Chonemorpha megacalyx</u> Pier.	stem	acid with warm nature	
<u>Ervatamia hainanensis</u> Tsiang	root	bitter and acid with warm nature	
<u>Hunteria shurnea</u> Pichon	seeds, stem bark and root bark	---	(24)
<u>Holarrhena antidysenterica</u> Wall.	bark	---	
<u>Vinca minor</u> L.		---	(20)
<u>Rauwolfia serpentina</u> Benth. ex. Kurz.	root	bitter with cold nature	(36, 7)
<u>Rauwolfia tetraphylla</u> L.	root		(36)
<u>Rauwolfia verticillata</u> (Lour.) Baill.	root		(24, 36)
<u>Rauwolfia vomitoria</u> Afzel.	root		(24)
<u>Picralina nitida</u> Stapf.	seed	---	(24)
<u>Tabernaemontana pachysiphon</u> Stapf.	root	---	(24)
<u>Voacanga africana</u> Stapf.	stem bark and root bark	---	(24)
<u>Holarrhena floribunda</u> (Don) Dur. & Schinz var. <u>floribunda</u>	stem bark and root bark	---	(24)
Asclepiadaceae			
<u>Cynanchum paniculatum</u> (Bge.)	root and stem	acid with warm nature	
<u>Cryptolepis sanguinolenta</u> (Lindl.) Schltr.	root		(24)
Convolvulaceae			
<u>Convolvulus arvensis</u> L.	whole plant and flower	salty with warm nature	
<u>Ipomoea digitalis</u> L.	root and leaf	bitter with cold nature	
Boraginaceae			
<u>Cynoglossum officinale</u> L.	root	sweet with mild nature	
<u>Heliopteryx indicum</u> L.	root or whole plant	bitter with mild nature	
Verbenaceae			
<u>Clerodendron bungei</u> Steud.	root	acid and bitter with warm nature	
<u>Clerodendron fragrans</u> Vent.	stem and leaf	acid and bitter	
<u>Clerodendron trichotomum</u> Thunb.	root and leaf	bland with mild nature	
	young shoot	bitter and sweet	
	and leaf		
	root	bitter with cold nature	

<u>Clerodendron yunnanense</u> Hu ex Hand.-Mazz.	whole plant	acrid and bitter with warm nature	
<u>Heliotropium indicum</u> L.	seeds, whole plant and root	bitter with mild nature	(37)
<u>Lantana camara</u> L.	root young shoot	sweet and bitter with cold nature bitter with cold nature	
Labiatae			
<u>Ajuga lupulina</u> Maxim.	whole plant	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Anisomeles indica</u> (L.) O. Ktze.	whole plant	acrid and bitter with warm nature	
<u>Dracocephalum heterophyllum</u>	whole plant	acrid and bitter with cold nature	
<u>Glechoma longituba</u> (Nakai) Kupr.	whole plant	acrid and bitter with cool nature	
<u>Leonurus heterophyllus</u> Sweet	whole plant	acrid and bitter with cool nature	
<u>Mesona chinensis</u> Benth.	whole plant	sweet and astringent with cold nature	(19)
<u>Prunella vulgaris</u> L.	fruit and inflorescence	sweet and bitter with cold nature	
<u>Rosmarinus officinalis</u> L.	whole plant	acrid with warm nature	
<u>Salvia miltiorrhiza</u> Bge.	root	bitter with warm nature	
<u>Scutellaris baicalensis</u> Georgi	root	bitter with cold nature	
Solanaceae			
<u>Lycium chinense</u> Mill.	root bark	sweet with cold nature	(22)
<u>Scopolia acutangula</u> C.Y. Wu et. C.Chen	leaf, root and seed	bitter with warm nature	
Scrophulariaceae			
<u>Linaria vulgaris</u> Mill.	whole plant	bitter and sweet with cold nature	
<u>Rehmannia glutinosa</u> (Gaertn.) Libosch.	root and shoot	sweet and bitter with cool nature	
<u>Rehmannia glutinosa</u> Libosch. F. hueichingensis (Chao et Schih) Hsiao.			
<u>Scrophularia ningpoensis</u> Hemsl.	root	salty and bitter with cool nature	
<u>Verbascum thapsus</u> L.	whole plant	acrid and bitter with cold nature	
<u>Veronica anagallis-aquatica</u> L.	whole plant	bitter with cool nature	

Orobanchaceae

- Cistanche ambigua (Bge.) G. Beck. shoot sweet, sour and salty with warm nature
Cistanche deserticola Y.C. Ma
Cistanche salsa (C.A. Mey.) G. Beck.

Bignoniaceae

- Tecomaria capensis (Thunb.) Spach. root or leaf acrid and bitter with cool nature

Acanthaceae

- Andrographis panicolata (Burm. f.) Nees. whole plant bitter with cold nature

Plantaginaceae

- Plantago asiatica L. whole plant or seed sweet with cold nature
Plantago depressa Willd. seed

Rubiaceae

- Corvnanthe pachyceras Schum. bark (24)
Galium aperine L. whole shoot acrid and bitter with cold nature
Galium asperifolium Wall.
Ixora chinensis Lam. flower acrid with cold nature
Mitragyna inermis (Willd.) Ktze. bark and leaf (24)
Mitragyna stipulosa (D.C.) Ktze.
Paederia scandens (Lour.) Merr. whole shoot and root sweet and sour with mild nature
Pausinystalia johimbe (Schum.) Pierre bark (24)
 Pierre ex Beille
Serissa serissoides (D.C.) Druce whole plant acrid with cool nature (38)
Uncaria macrophylla Wall. shoot sweet and bitter with cool nature
Uncaria rhynchophylla (Miq.) Jacks. stem sweet with cool nature (4)
Uncaria sinensis (Oliv.) Havil.
Morinda lucida Benth. stem, bark, root and leaves (24)

Valerianaceae

- Valeriana officinalis L. root acrid and bitter with warm nature (7,39)

Campanulaceae

<u>Codonopsis lanceolata</u> Benth. et Hook.	root	sweet	sweet and acrid with mild nature
<u>Codonopsis pilosula</u> (Franch.) Nannf.	root	sweet	sweet with mild nature
<u>Lebelia chinensis</u> Lour.	whole plant	sweet	sweet with mild nature

Compositae

<u>Achillea millefolium</u> L.	whole plant		sweet, acrid and bitter with cold nature
<u>Anaphalis nepalensis</u> (Spr.) Hand.-Mazz.	whole plant	sweet	sweet with mild nature
<u>Artemisia capillaris</u> Thunb.	leaf	acrid	acrid and bitter with cool nature (20)
<u>Bidens tripartita</u> L.	whole shoot	sweet	sweet and bitter with mild nature
<u>Blumea balsamifera</u> D.C.	leaf and young shoot	acrid	acrid and bitter with warm nature
<u>Blumea densiflora</u> (Heyne) D.C.	whole plant		bitter with cold nature
<u>Calendula arvensis</u> L.	whole plant and flower		
<u>Calendula officinalis</u> L.	flower and root		bland with mild nature
<u>Capesium abrotanoides</u> L.	root and leaf	acrid	acrid with cold nature
<u>Carduus crispus</u> L.	whole plant		bitter with mild nature
<u>Carduus acanthoides</u> L.	and root		
<u>Carthamus tinctorius</u> L.	flower	acrid	acrid with warm nature (40)
<u>Cephalanoplos segetum</u> (Bge.) Kitam.	whole plant or root	sweet	sweet with cool nature
<u>Chrysanthemum indicum</u> L.	flower	acrid	acrid and bitter with cool nature (20)
<u>Chrysanthemum boreals</u> Mark.			
<u>Chrysanthemum lavandulaefolium</u> (Fisch.) Mak.			
<u>Chrysanthemum morifolium</u> Ramat.	flower	sweet	sweet and bitter with cool nature
<u>Cirsium japonicum</u> D.C.	root or whole plant		sweet with cool nature (38)
<u>Echinops latifolius</u> Tausch.	stem	bitter	bitter and salty with cold nature
<u>Eupatorium lindleyanum</u> D.C. var. trifoliolatum Mak.	whole plant	bitter	bitter with mild nature
<u>Gnaphalium uliginosum</u> L.	whole plant	sweet	sweet and mild nature

<u>Gnaphalium hypoleueum</u> D.C.	whole plant	sweet and bitter with mild nature	
<u>Helianthus annuus</u> L.	flower	sweet with warm nature	
	leaf		
	receptacle		
<u>Ixeris chinensis</u> (Thunb.) Nakai	whole plant		
<u>Rhaponticum uniflorum</u>	whole plant		
<u>Saussurea lappa</u> Clarke	stem	bitter and salty with cold nature	
<u>Siegesbeckia orientalis</u> L.	root	acrid and bitter with warm nature	
<u>Siegesbeckia orientalis</u> L. var.	whole plant	bitter with cold nature	(20) (20)
pubesceus Mak.			
<u>Siegesbeckia orientalis</u> L. var.			
glabrescens Mak.			
<u>Wedelia chinensis</u> (Osbeck) Merr.	whole plant	sour and sweet with cool nature	(20)
<u>Wedelia prostrata</u> (Hook. et. Arn.)	whole plant	sour and sweet with mild nature	
Hemsl.			
<u>Vernonia colorata</u> (Willd.) Drake.	leaf	---	(24)
<u>Vladimiria denticulata</u> Ling.	root	acrid and bitter with warm nature	(24)
<u>Vladimiria souliei</u> (Franch.) Ling.			
<u>Xanthium sibiricum</u> Patr. ex. Widd.	root	warm nature	
Typhaceae			
<u>Typha angustata</u> Bory et. Chaub.	pollen	acrid and sweet with cool nature	
<u>Typha angustifolia</u> L.			
<u>Typha latifolia</u> L.			
Alismaceae			
<u>Alisma plantago-aquatica</u> L. var.	shoot	sweet with cold nature	
orientale Samuels			
Gramineae			
<u>Arundo donax</u> L.	root	bitter with cold nature	
<u>Imperata cylindrica</u> (L.) P. Beauv.	root	sweet with cold nature	(38)
var. major (Nees) C.E. Hubb.			
<u>Panicum repens</u> L.	root	sweet and bitter with mild nature	
<u>Zea Mays</u> L.	style	sweet with mild nature	(38)

Palmae

<u>Trachycarpus wagnerianus</u> Becc.	3ecc.	fruit	bitter	bitter with mild nature	
		leaf	---	---	
		plumal tissue	bitter	bitter with mild nature	
		bark			
		flower			

Araceae

<u>Acorus calamus</u> L.	L.	root	an1	acrid and bitter with warm nature	
--------------------------	----	------	-----	-----------------------------------	--

Commelinaceae

<u>Commelina communis</u> L.	1e	whole plant		bitter with cold nature	
------------------------------	----	-------------	--	-------------------------	--

Liliaceae

<u>Allium sativum</u>		shoot		acrid with warm nature	(24)
<u>Allium ursinum</u>		shoot and stem		acrid with warm nature	(7)
<u>Asparagus officinalis</u> L.	L.	root	sweet	sweet and bitter with warm nature	
<u>Fritillaria cirrhosa</u> D. Don.	D. Don.	shoot	bitter	bitter and sweet with cool nature	
<u>Fritillaria delavayi</u> Franch.					
<u>Paris quadrifolia</u> Linn.	Linno	root	acrid	acrid and bitter with cold nature	(41)
<u>Polygonatum cyrtoneura</u> Hua	Hua	root	sweet	sweet with mild nature	
<u>Polygonatum kingianum</u> Coll. et. Hemsl.					
<u>Polygonatum macropodium</u> Turcz.					
<u>Polygonatum roseum</u> (Ledeb.) Kunth.		root	root	bitter with cool nature	
<u>Polygonatum sibiricum</u> Redoute	Pedoute	root	root	sweet with mild nature	
<u>Polygonatum verticillatum</u> (L.) All.		root	root	bitter with cool nature	
<u>Trillium tschonoskii</u> Maxim.	Maxim.	root	sweet	sweet and acrid with warm nature	
<u>Trillium camtschaticum</u> Pall.					
<u>Veratrum album</u> L.	album	rhizome		---	(36)
<u>Veratrum lobelianum</u> Bernh.	bernh.	root and shoot		bitter and acrid with cold nature	(7)
<u>Veratrum nigrum</u> L.	L.	root	and	acrid and bitter with cold nature	
<u>Veratrum viride</u> Ait.	viride	rhizome	Ait.	---	(36)

Amaryllidaceae

<u>Curculigo orchoides</u> Gaertn.	hi	root	oides	acrid with warm nature	(37)
<u>Lycoris radiata</u> (L'Her.) Herb.	Herb.	shoot	acrid	acrid with warm nature	

Taccaceae					
<u>Tacca plantaginea</u>	(Hance) Prenth.	root	root	bitter	bitter with cool nature
Dioscoreaceae					
<u>Dioscorea caucasica</u>	Lypski	root	root	bitter	bitter with mild nature (7)
Zingiberaceae					
<u>Curcuma aromatica</u>	Salisb.	root	root	acrid	acrid and bitter with warm nature
<u>Curcuma longa</u>	L.				
Musaceae					
<u>Musa basico</u>	Sieb. et. Zucc.	root		sweet	sweet with cold nature
Orchidaceae					
<u>Luisia morsei</u>	Rolfe	whole plant	whole plant	and	acrid and bitter with mild nature

Table 2.1.2 The ten largest families of hypotensive plants.

Family	no. of genera	no. of species
Compositae	24	36
Apocynaceae	12	17
Leguminosae	11	17
Labiatae	10	10
Rubiaceae	9	13
Ranunculaceae	8	21
Liliaceae	7	19
Menispermaceae	7	12
Umbelliferae	6	17
Berberidaceae	4	14

Table 2.1.3 The five largest superorder of hypotensive plants

Superorder	no. of genera	no. of species
Ranunculiflorae	26	57
Asteriflorae	26	39
Gentianiflorae	21	41
Lamiiflorae	20	27
Rosiflorae	18	27

Table 2.1.4 The classification of the Chinese medicinal plants
by their flavors

Flavor	no. of species	percentage
Acrid	100	22.62
Sweet	113	25.67
Bitter	189	42.77
Sour	20	4.52
Salty	13	2.94
Bland	7	1.58

Table 2.1.5 The classification of the Chinese medicinal plants
by their natures

Nature	no. of species	percentage
Cold	103	34.33
Cool	48	16.00
Hot	3	1.00
Warm	78	26.00
Mild	68	22.67

Fig. 2.1.1 Dahlgren's system of classification of angiosperms used to demonstrate the distribution of hypotensive plants (each number represents a single family, and N.M=no. of genus and no. of species)

SECTION TWO

HYPOTENSIVE ACTIVE PRINCIPLES IN MEDICINAL
PLANTS

The therapeutic properties of Chinese medicine can be traced back to some unique and specific biomolecules in the plants. To distinguish these biologically active compounds with the inactive structural phytochemical components, they are usually known as the active principles of the herbal drugs. The isolation, purification, characterization and synthesis of these active principles are the ultimate goal for the phytochemists who work on medicinal plants. When these become available, pharmacologists then perform indepth investigations on the drug actions and look for possible clinical applications.

As in all the plant materials, the medicinal plants contains many different groups of chemicals. They include proteins, amino acids, lipids, saccharides, organic acids, tannins, quinones, lactones, coumarins, isocoumarins, chromone derivatives, lignans, glycosides, terpenes, volatile oils and alkaloids (1,42). Although active principles have been identified in almost every group of these chemicals, alkaloids and glycosides are the most popular groups.

The Alkaloids (Structure I - XVI)

Many hypotensive principles have been isolated. The most famous one is reserpine (I), an indole alkaloid, which was first isolated from the rootbark of Rauwolfia serpentina

Benth. in 1952 (43). From that time onward, numerous works have been done to isolate reserpine from other Rauwolfia species, such as R. vomitoria Afzel., R. verticillata (Lour.) Baill. and R. yunnanensis. The former one contains reserpine up to 1.7%, even more than the amount obtained from R. serpentina (4,24). The Rauwolfia species are also rich sources for other alkaloids: many hypotensive alkaloids such as yohimbine (II), rescinnamine, reserpiline, ajmalicine (III) and naumitorine were isolated from their roots and leaves (44,45). In China, the alkaloid extracts from R. verticillata (Lour.) Baill. and Rauwolfia vomitoria Afzel are now commercially available under the trade mark Verticilum and Reseninum respectively, for the treatment of hypertension (46).

Hypotensive alkaloid is not the gift only for Rauwolfia, but also for other apocynaceae. From Catharanthus lanceus, for example, the well-known hypotensive agent yohimbine was isolated. Akuammidine, an indole derivative, which has a hypotensive effect of weaker but longer lasting than yohimbine has been isolated from the seed of Picralima nitida (Stapf.) Th. & H. Dur. (24). Hypotensive steroid alkaloids which is derived from holarrhenine (IV) or from pregnane (V), such as holarrimine, holaphyllamine and holaphylline, and adenine alkaloids, triacanthine (VI) have been found in Holarrhena floribunda (Don) Dur. & Schinz. var. floribunda (24). Indole alkaloids, eburnamonine, eburnamine and hunterine, which have

strong and lasting hypotensive action have been extracted from the root and stem bark of Hunteria species (24). Voacamine, voacangine, voacordine, vobtusine and tabersonine (VII) have been isolated from Voacanga africana Stapf. and V. bracteata Stapf. (VIII). Vincamin has been also obtained from Vinca minor L. (24).

Since alkaloids are quite widely distributed in the plant kingdom, the hypotensive alkaloids are expected to be found in other families too. Indeed, the bark of Pausinystalia johimbine (Schum.) Pierre ex Beille (Rubiaceae) has been reported contain yohimbine, mesoyohimbine and yohimbine as well as corynanthine, allyoyohimbine and ajmalicine (24). Corynanthine has been isolated from Corynanthe pachyrrhiza Schum. (Rubiaceae) and rhynchophylline (IX), mitraversine, and mitraphylline (X) has been found in Mitragyna spp. (Rubiaceae) (24,47).

The roots of Cryptolepis sanguinolenta (Lindl.) Schltr. (Periplocaceae) contain a quinoline-derived indole alkaloid, cryptolepine, which can produce a marked and durable hypotension (48). Eserine was obtained from the seeds of Physostigma venenosum Balfour (Fabaceae) (49). Thalictrum alkaloids like thaliadine, adiantifoline and thaliadanine were obtained from the root of Thalictrum minus (Ranunculaceae). They possess a powerful and prolonged hypotensive effect (2 mg/kg) in dogs,

cats and rabbits (50). Pyridine alkaloids, carpine, which can reduce blood pressure in small doses has been reported in the young leaves of Carica papaya L. (Caricaceae) (51). Furthermore, heliotrine (XI) from the seed of Heliotropium indicum (Boraginaceae) reportedly produces a transient hypotension in anesthetized dogs (36).

Some well-known hypotensive alkaloids are obtained from Menispermaceae. Dauricine (XII), an isoquinoline alkaloid - extract from the root of Menispermum dauricum D.C., has been reported to have hypotensive action in anesthetized cats (26). Tetrandrine (XIII), the active principle of Stephania tetrandra S. Moore, possesses a marked hypotensive effect and is now used clinically (52). Dimethylcycleanine bromide which is the δ -amino derivative of cycleanine (XIV) isolated from Stephania epigea Diels. It is now used for control hypotension in anesthesia during surgery (53).

A cactus alkaloid, N^a , N^a -Dimethylhistamine is obtained from Echinocereus triglochidiatus Engelm. var. neomexicanus (Standley) Standley ex W.T. Marshall (Cactaceae) and is the hypotensive principle (31). Tetramethylpyrazine XV, the active principle of Lingusticum wallichii French., which are generally used in the treatment of brain blood deficiency, has been demonstrated to possess hypotensive action in anesthetized

dogs (54). Furthermore, an isoquinoline alkaloid, berbamine hydrochloride (XVI) which is isolated from Berberis poiratii and is generally present in berberidaceae, has been demonstrated to produce hypotensive responses in cats, dogs and rabbits (55).

The Glycosides (Structure XVII - XX)

The second major group of the hypotensive principles isolated from plant is glycoside. It is also well-known for its cardiotonic and haemolytic properties. Puerarin (XVII), a flavanoid glycoside obtained from the root of Pueraria lobata (Willd.) Ohwi (Leguminaceae), can produce a mild depressor effect in hypertensive patients (56). Isoquercitrin (XVIII) which is isolated from the leaves of Diospyros kaki (Ebenaceae) has been shown to have hypotensive property (6). Gomita et al reported that the pennogenin tetraglycoside (XIX) obtained from Paris quadrifolia Linn. produced hypotensive responses in rats (41).

Olive leaves, Folia oleae (Burseraceae), contain a bitter glycoside - oleuropein (XX). This iridoid glycoside possesses a marked antihypertensive and antiarrhythmic action (7). Another glycoside, vernonin, isolated from the root of Pernonia colorata (Willd.) Drake (Compositae) produces a marked fall in blood pressure in cat and dogs when injected intravenously (24). Furthermore, there is pachysiphine, a hypotensive aminosteroid glycoside from Tabernaemontana pachysiphon Stapf.

(Tabernaemontaneae) (24).

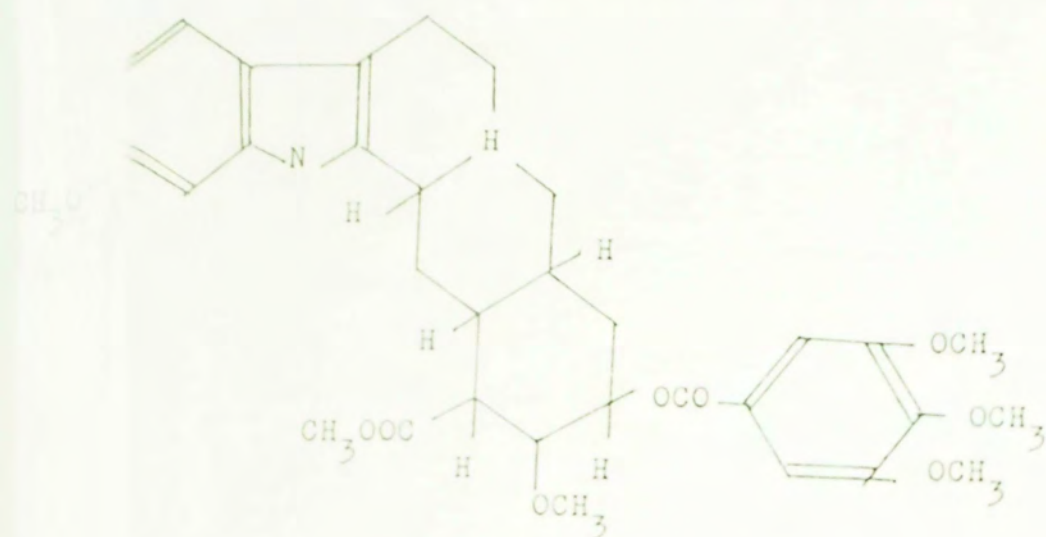
Others (Structure XXI - XXV)

Hypotensive active principles from other groups of chemicals are also identified. From the rootbark of Morus alba L. (Moraceae), a well-known hypotensive herb, come kuwanon G, H (XXI), moracehin A (XXII) and C (XXIII) (6). They are flavanoid derivatives and produce hypotension effects in rats and rabbits. The flavanoid sum called crataemon obtained from the blossoms and leaves of Crataegus monogyna, exercises a slight, short-term hypotensive effect (4). Armillarisin A (XXIV), a coumarin derivative, obtained from the ethanol extract of the culture medium of a fungus, Armillariella tabescens (Scop. ex Fr.) Sing. produces a depressor response in anesthetized dogs (57).

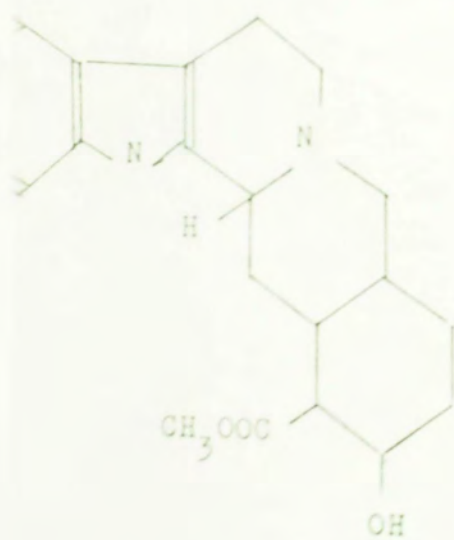
Complex molecule as polysaccharide was identified as the hypotensive principle of the lichen, Dermatocapon miniatum (L.) Mann. (19). On the other hand, simple molecules as allicin (XXV), diallyl disulphide oxide, from Allium sativum L. (Amaryllidaceae) is also responsible for the hypotensive action (7). It is interesting to notice that the common neural transmitter, gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA), has been isolated from Astragalus dasyanthus Pall. (Leguminosae) which is therefore hypotensive (7).

Thus, hypotensive effects of the Chinese medicines are due to the presence of such a wide spectrum of chemicals in the plants ranging from large and complex molecules to simple and small molecules.

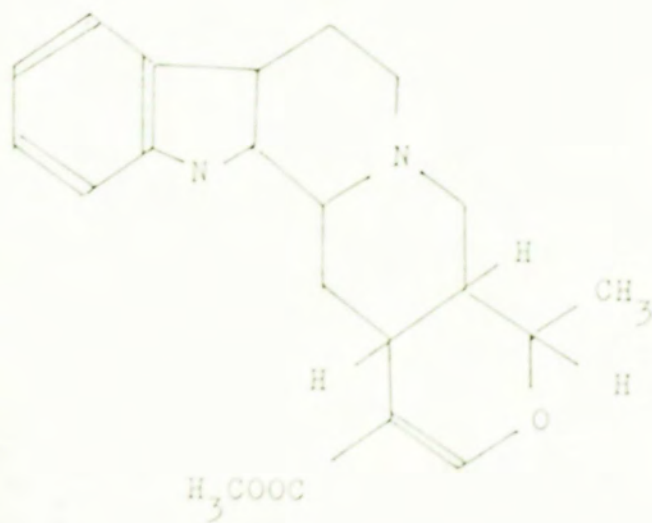
Structure of the Active Hypotensive Principles



(I) reserpine

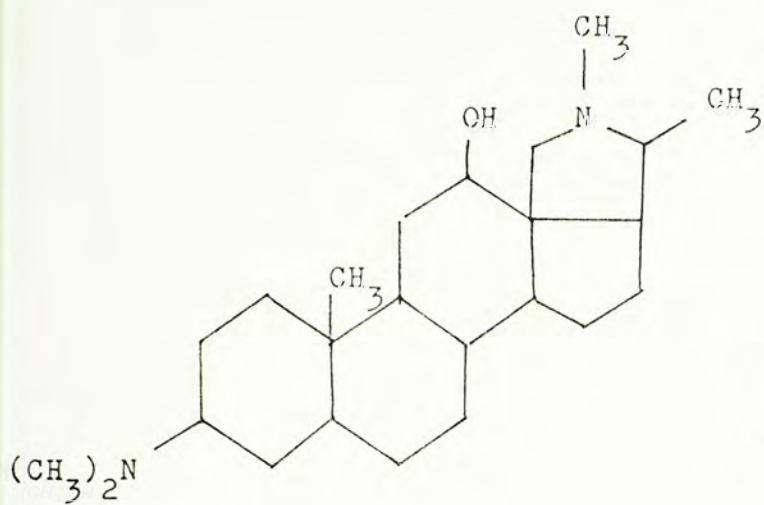


(II) yohimbine

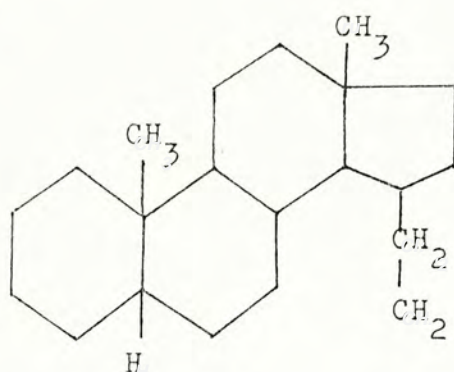


(III) ajmalicine

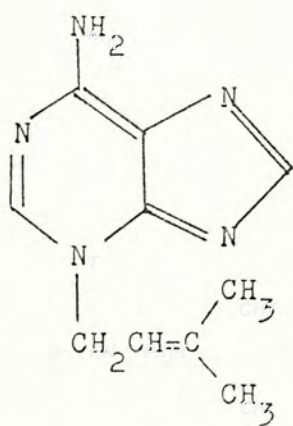
Structure (cont.)



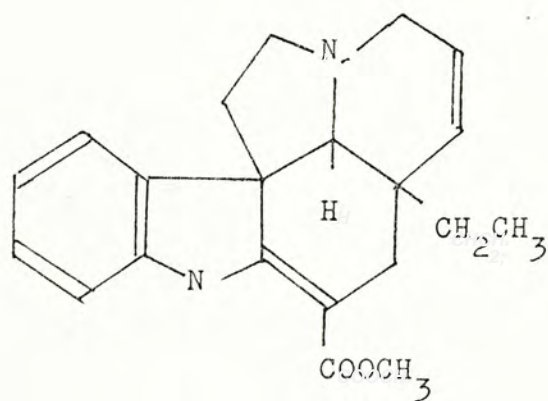
(IV) holarrenine



(V) 5 β -pregnane

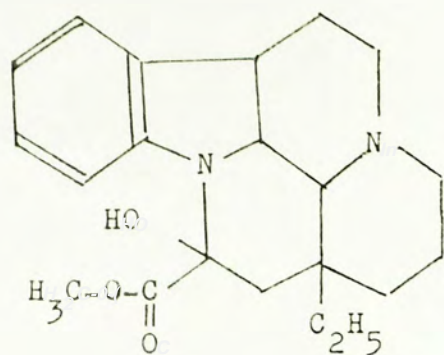


(VI) Triacanthine

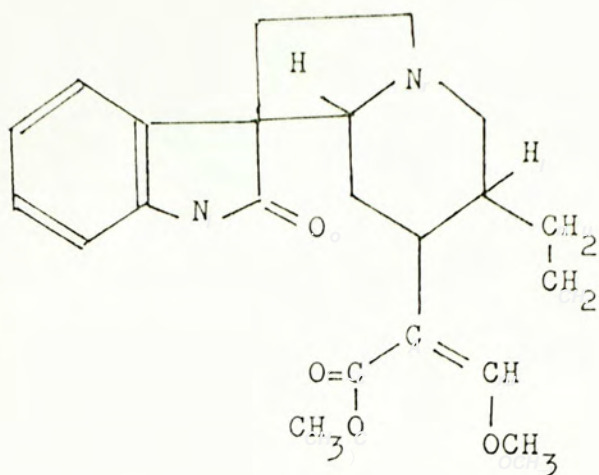


(VII) tabersonine

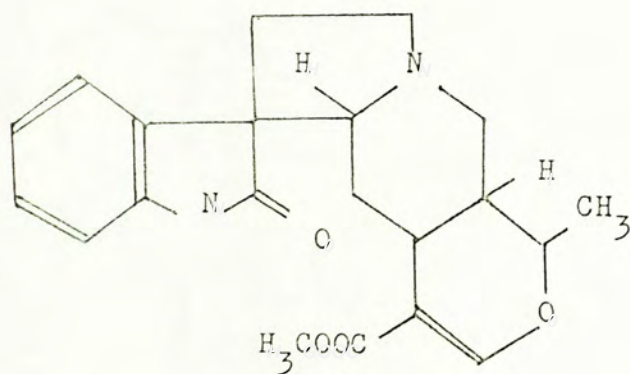
Structure (cont.)



(VIII) vincamin

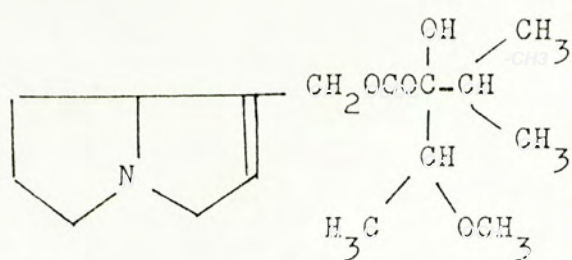


(IX) rhynchophylline

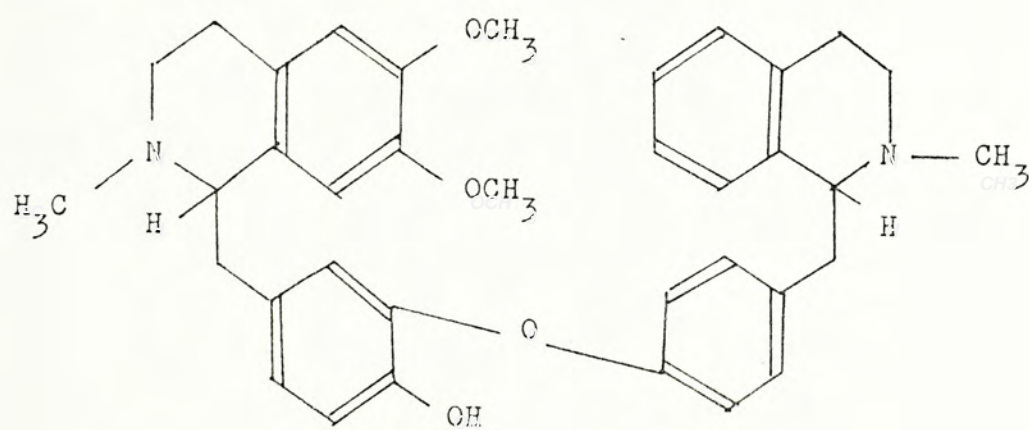


(X) mitraphylline

Structure (cont.)

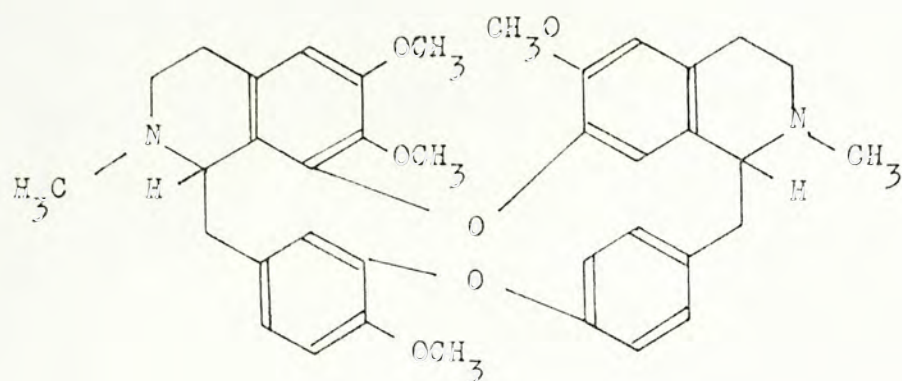


(XI) heliotrine

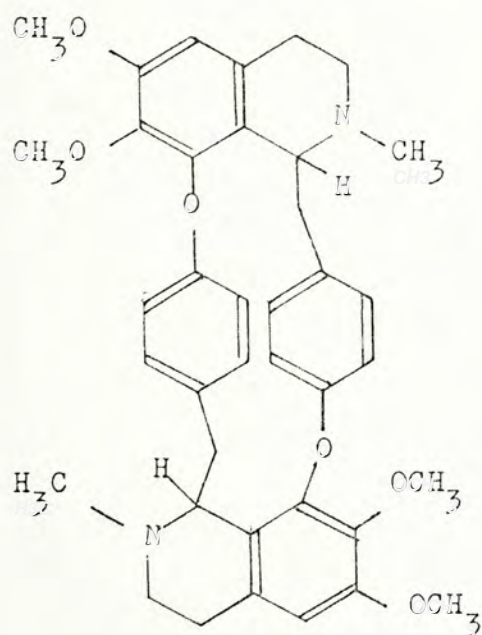


(XII) dauricine

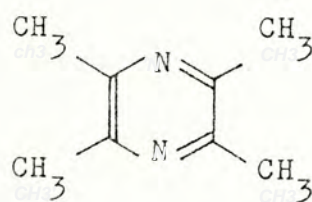
Structure (cont.)



(XIII) tetrandrine

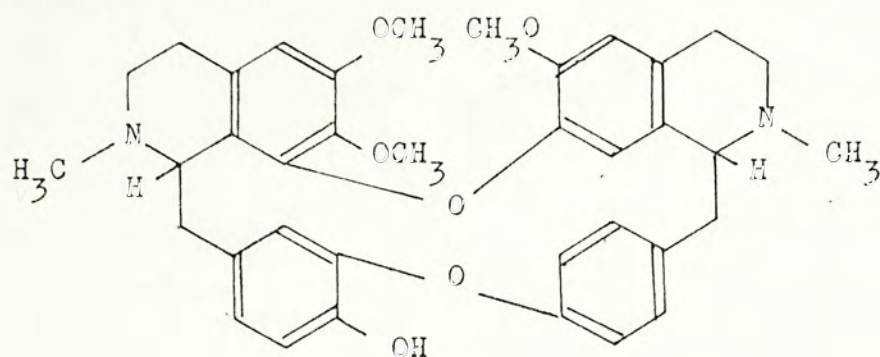


(XIV) cycleanine

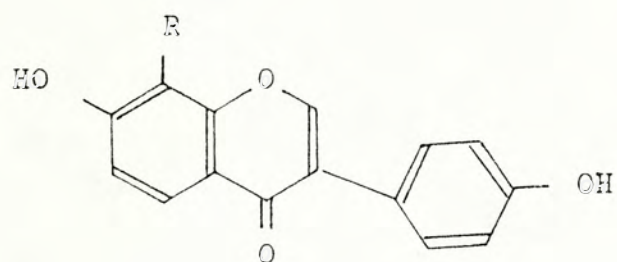


(XV) tetramethylpyrazine

Structure (cont.)



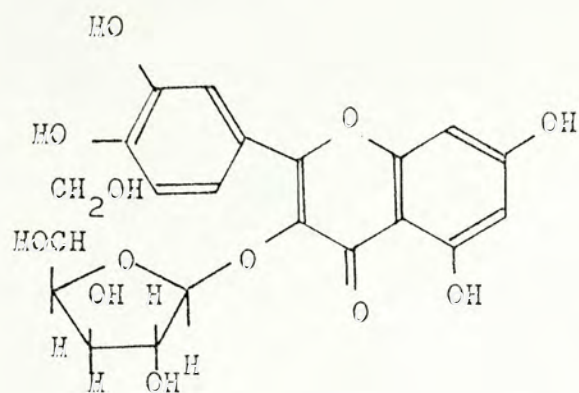
(XVI) berbamine



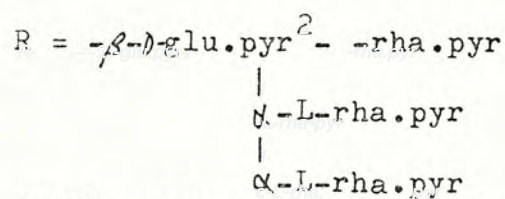
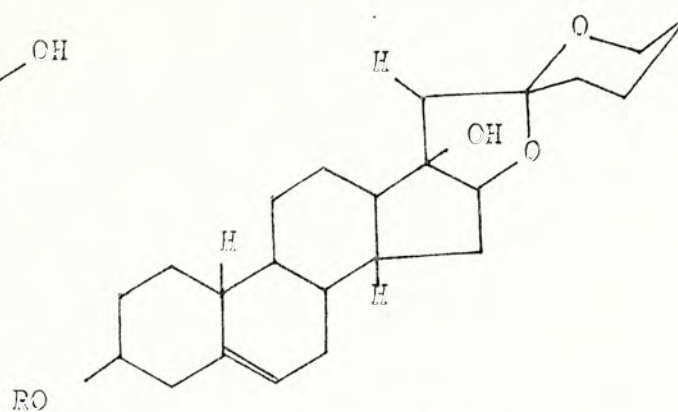
R = D-glucopyranosyl group

(XVII) quercetin

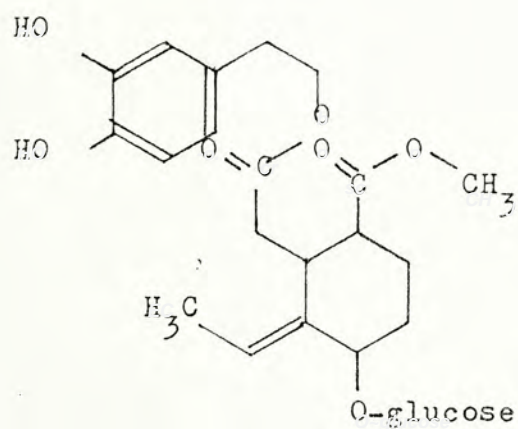
Structure (cont.)



(XVIII) isoquercitrin

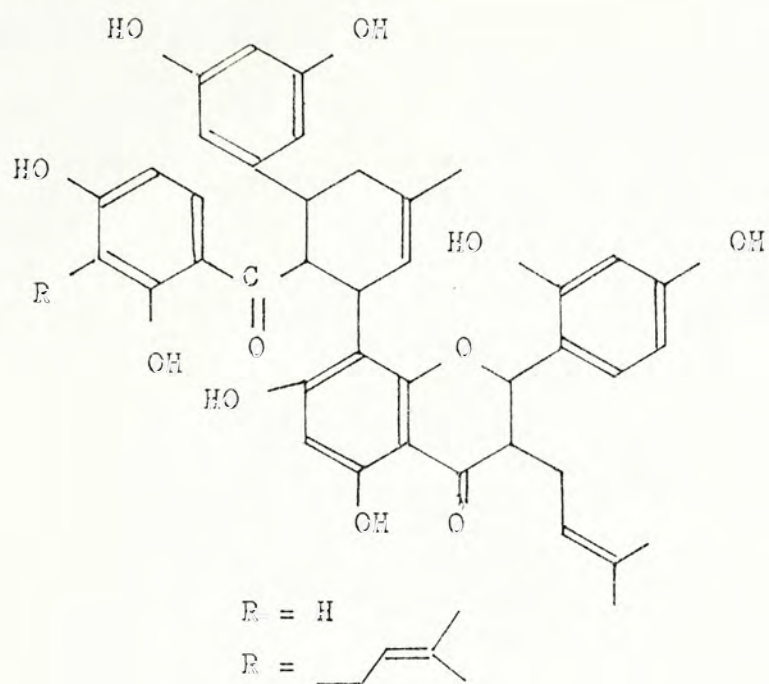


(XIX) pennogenin tetraglycoside (Tg)

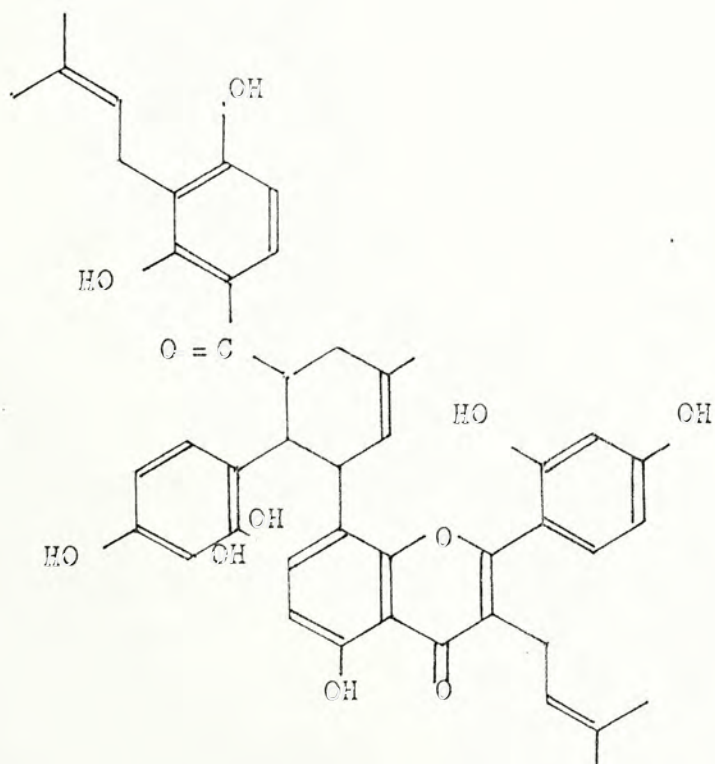


(XX) oleuropein

Structure (cont.)

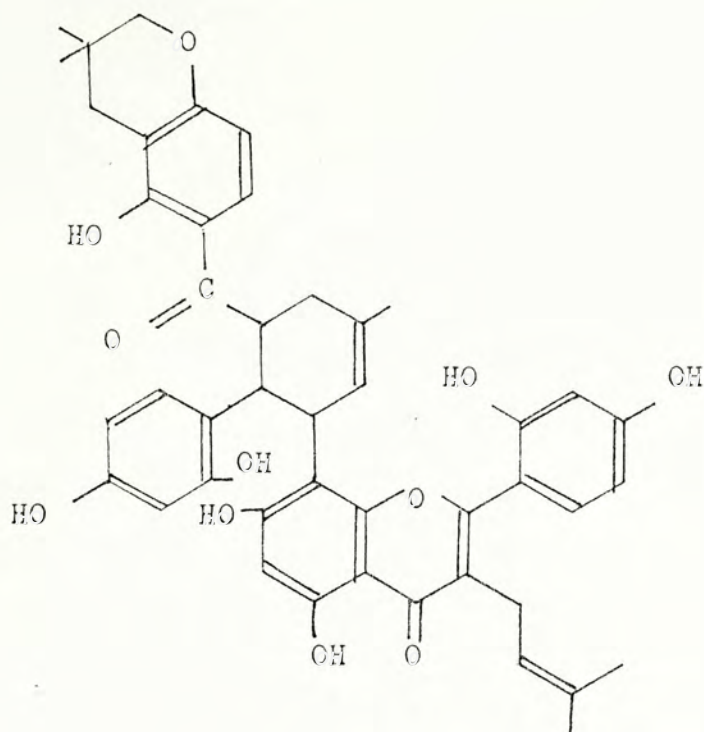


(XXI) kuwanon G, H

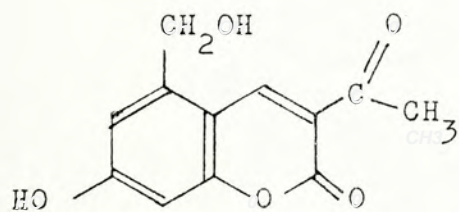


(XXII) moracehin A

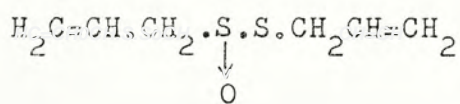
Structure (cont.)



(XXIII) moracehin C



(XXIV) armillarisin A



(XXV) allicin

SECTION THREE

HYPOTENSIVE ACTIONS OF THE MEDICINAL PLANTS AND SOME KNOWN ACTIVE PRINCIPLES ISOLATED FROM THEM

The blood pressure of an animal is determined by its cardiac output and the peripheral resistance. Thus, we can expect any drug that reduces the cardiac output and/or induces vasodilatation will produce a hypotensive effect. A hypotensive drug may act through the nervous system or directly on the vascular smooth muscle. Hypotensive drugs that act on the nervous system include: sedatives that have a depressant effect on the CNS, sympatholytics that are antagonistic to adrenalin, parasympathomimetics that simulate the effect of acetylcholine, and ganglioplegics that can paralyse the nerve cells at the ganglion level.

The action mechanisms of the hypotensive Chinese medicines and their active principles (see section 2) are outlined below:

(A) Active Hypotensive Principles

1) Reserpine is among the most well studied. It depletes the storage of the catecholamine and serotonins in the nerve cells and the adrenal medulla by antagonizing the uptake of the norepinephrine and dopamine by chromaffin granules. The depletion of catecholamine leads to a fall in blood pressure, due to the decrease on the vasomotor tone and bradycardia (58). Furthermore, reserpine also enhances the arterial responses to vasodilators such as acetylcholine, isoproterenol, histamine,

nitroglycerin and cyclic nucleotides (59). This enhancement may play a part in the reserpine-induced hypotension.

2) Yohimbine, exerts its action by antagonizing the α -adrenoceptors. It has a pronounced prejunctional selectivity for the α_2 -adrenoceptors. It has been demonstrated by the blockade of the prejunctional inhibitory effect of clonidine on the tachycardia evoked by sympathetic nerve stimulation in dogs, at lower doses than those required for blocking the pressor responses to clonidine, noradrenaline, adrenaline, or phenylephrine (60,61).

3) Berbamine produces the depressor response by acting on the CNS and the vascular smooth muscle. This action on the CNS has been shown in cats by intravertebral artery injection. The dose required to produce a depressor response in this preparation was higher than that injected through the femoral or carotid artery. The vasodilating effect was shown in rat by the hindlimb perfusion techniques (55).

4) The hypotensive action of tetradrine, the active principle from Stepharia tetrandra S. Moore is attributed to the decrease in the peripheral resistance and cardiac activity (52). The cardiovascular effect of tetradrine can be enhanced by - antagonist. It is believed that tetradrine exerts its action by

inhibiting the Ca^{2+} influx into the cardiac muscle cells (62,63).

5) Dauricine, an alkaloid structurally similar to tetrandrine relaxes the norepinephrine precontracted aortic helical strip of normotensive and the kidney-type hypertensive rats, but it is not antagonistic to α -adrenoceptors. The CNS may also play some role in the hypotensive effect, because injection through the vertebral artery produces a fall in blood pressure at a much smaller dose (26). In another study, dauricine relaxed the adrenaline, potassium and noradrenaline precontracted aortic strips of rats and rabbits. It shifted the dose-response curves of noradrenaline, potassium chloride and calcium chloride to the right. Its action is similar to that of tetrandrine, that is, inhibits the Ca^{2+} entry to the vascular smooth muscle cells (27).

6) Pennogenin tetraglycoside (Tg), extracted from Paris quadrifolia Linn. produces a marked fall in the blood pressure of mice, and this reduction in blood pressure is not affected by the pretreatment with atropine and physostigmine. Furthermore, it has a cardiac stimulating effect in the isolated frog heart (41).

(B) Hypotensive Crude Plant Extracts

1) Angelica sinensis is a well-known Chinese medicinal plant.

Its water extract can produce a depressor response in anesthetized or conscious dogs. The depressor response is mainly ascribed to the reduction of the peripheral resistance and is mediated through the acetylcholine and histamine receptors (33). Angelica sinensis was shown to increase the Rb^{88} uptake in the cardiac muscle by improving the coronary blood flow and by dilating the small arterioles in the heart (32).

2) Eucommia ulmoides is commonly known as Tu-chung in Chinese.

Pharmacological studies showed that the hypotensive effect of its alcohol extract is not mediated through adrenergic or cholinergic receptors. The central nervous system and the autonomic nervous system do not seem to play any role, since spinal cord transection, ganglion blockade with hexamethonium bromide and vagotomy can not abolish the depressor response. Rat hindquarter perfusion and helical strip studies show that the hypotensive action is due to the reduction in the peripheral resistance by vasodilatation (21).

3) The alcohol extract of the root of Panax notoginseng (Burk.) F.H. Chen, which is a close relative of Panax ginseng, exhibits a hypotensive action. In anesthetized cats, it produces a depressor response and reduces the heart rate. In situ experiments showed that the extract could stimulate

vasodilatation in rabbit kidney, ear and hindquarter (29). It also increases the blood flow rate in the coronary artery (30).

4) The vasodilatory effect of the flower of Carthamus tinctorius L. has been studied. The alcohol extract induced vasodilatation in the isolated preparations of guinea-pig posterior extremities and rabbit ears. In experiments on the rabbit aortic strips, Carthamus was found to antagonise the vasoconstricting effect of noradrenaline. So, it is believed that the vasodilatory effect of Carthamus is due to its interference on the α -adrenoceptors (40).

5) The cardiovascular actions of volatile and non-volatile fractions of Valeriana officinalis L. var. Latifolia Miq. have been examined in rabbits. Both fractions produce hypotensive responses. The volatile fraction exhibits a relaxing effect on the vascular smooth muscle, but the non-volatile fraction causes vasoconstriction. On the other hand, the non-volatile fraction produces a marked bradycardia, while the volatile fraction only produces a slight reduction in heart rate. Thus, the hypotensive effect of the volatile fraction is mainly due to vasodilatation and that of the non-volatile is ascribed to its cardiac action (39).

6) Ethanol extract of Linderae umbellata Ramus shows a central depressant effect in mice via the CNS. It decreases the spontaneous movement and prolongs the duration of hexobarbital-induced sleep. Furthermore, it shows a vasodilating effect on the rabbit peripheral blood vessels and a negative inotropic action on the isolated rabbit heart (25).

7) The mechanism of hypotensive action of Terminalia arjuna has been studied in anesthetized cats and dogs. The pressor effect of the norepinephrine injection and the electric stimulation of the splanchnic nerve were not affected by the extract. Thus, the hypotensive effect is not due to the blockade of autonomic ganglia, adrenergic neurone and peripheral adrenoceptors. However, the carotid occlusion response can be inhibited by the drug. This hypotensive effect of Terminalia can also be partially inhibited by bilateral stellate ganglioectomy. It was confirmed by intraventricular and intravertebral injection that the depressor response is mainly of central origin (28).

The above pharmacological studies only answered a part of the question of how the hypotensive medicinal plants might work. A large portion of the hypotensive plants remains unexamined. It is important not only to see how they work,

but also to evaluate their therapeutic values. Will they become the "break through" drugs in cardiovascular disease one day? This should remain for the future work to answer.

CHAPTER THREE

EXPERIMENTAL WORK

SECTION ONE

THE STUDY OF THE HYPOTENSIVE EFFECT OF
FOUR PLANT EXTRACTS

Plants with putative hypotensive actions are distributed unevenly in the plant kingdom (Fig. 2.1.1). In this preliminary study, members from four different families were chosen. These are Calendula officinalis L. (Compositae), Acacia catechu (L.) Willd. (Leguminosae), Clematis chinensis Osbeck (Ranunculaceae) and Sargassum fusiforme (Harv.) Setch. (Sargassaceae). The first three are gymnosperms and the last one is an algae.

These four Chinese medicinal plants were chosen because 1) they belong to families which contain a large number of plants with hypotensive action, 2) their hypotensive actions based on available data are still obscure, and 3) they are readily available in Hong Kong.

The properties of the four medicinal plants are reported as follows:

- 1) The flower of Calendula officinalis L. has a bland flavor with a mild nature. The water extract of this plant is traditionally used for cooling the blood and stop bleeding. Intravenous injection of the flower extract produce positive inotropism and negative chronotropism (64).
- 2) The whole plant of Sargassum fusiforme (Harv.) Setch., has a salty flavor with cold nature. It is used for the treatment of acrofula, goiter, abdominal mass, edema, beri-beri

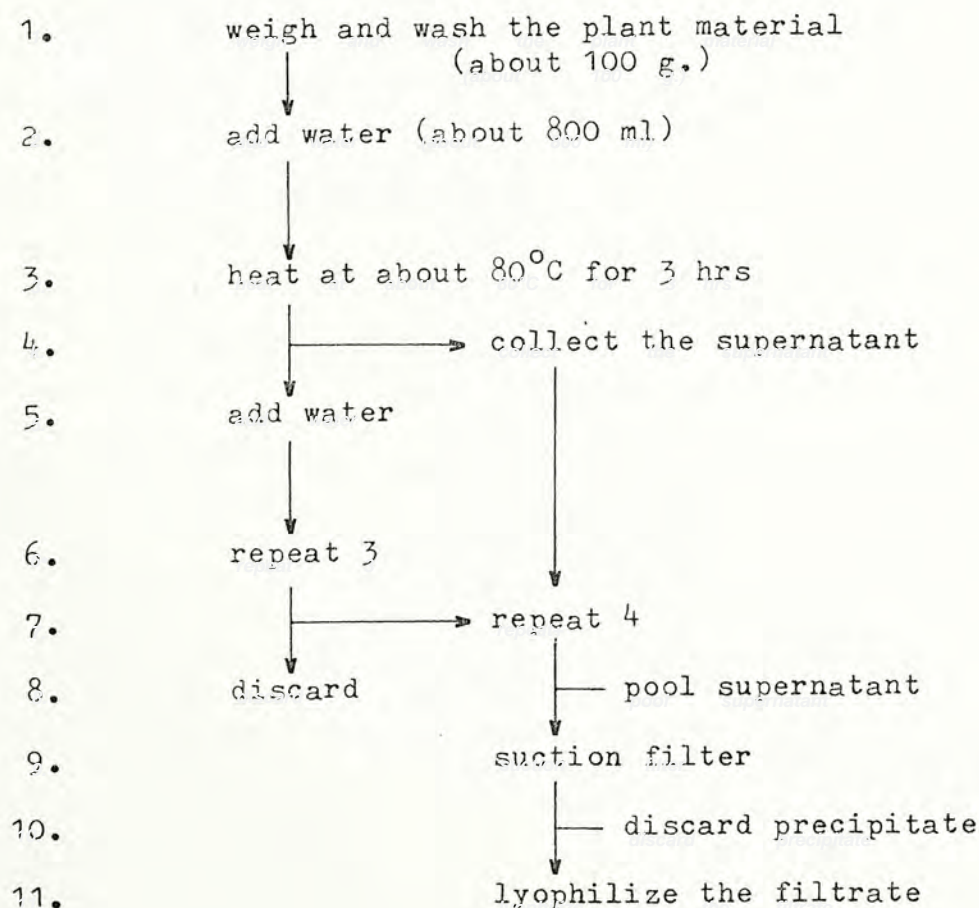
and swollen testis (65).

3) The root of Clematis chinensis Osbeck has a salty flavor with warm nature. It is taken for the treatment of arthralgia, beri-beri, malaria, tetanus and tonsillitis (66).

4) Acacia catechu (L.) Willd. has a bitter taste with a cold nature. The water extract is taken for treating ulcerative gingivitis, aphthae and pharyngitis (67).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Hai er cha (Acacia catechu (L.) Willd.), hai zao (Sargassum fusiforme (Harv.) Setch.), wei ling xian (Clematis chinensis osbeck) were purchased from local Chinese drug stores, and jin zhan ju (Calendula officinalis L.) was grown in the green house of Biology Department, the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Since herbal medicines are traditionally taken in the form of aqueous solution, the water extracts of these plants were prepared for examination. The procedures were outlines as follows:



Animal test

Male Sprague-Dawley rats, weighing between 200-400 g were used as the experimental animal. They were anesthetized with an intra-peritoneal injection of 50 mg/kg sodium pentobarbital (Abbott). The animal was placed in the supine position and the four limbs were secured tightly by electric wires to a surgical board. A vertical incision was made through skin, from the lower jaw to the upper part of the thorax. The trachea was then exposed by separating the stern-hyoid muscle, and was cannulated with a trachea cannula. The tissue around the left carotid artery was cleared and a segment of the vessel was exposed. A ligature was made on the anterior side and the posterior was clamped by a blood vessel clamp. A small cut was made just posterior to the ligature and a PE-50 cannula filled with heparinized saline was inserted and secured with surgical thread. The cannula was hooked up with a pressure transducer (Narco, P-100B) and a Narco Biosystem polygraph, for blood pressure recording. The left jugular vein was also cannulated for intravenous injection (68).

1) Effect of plant extracts

After a 30-min period of equilibration, two bolus injections of plant extracts at the same dose in term of mg of lyophilized powder/kg body weight was given to each rat. The changes in the

mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) were recognized as the differences between the steady MAP before and the lowest MAP after injection. The MAP was allowed to return to the resting level between injections and each injection was flushed with 0.3 ml of 0.9% saline. Each dose was tested with 5 rats.

2) Effect of cation contents in the plant extracts

The potassium, calcium and magnesium contents of the four plant extracts were estimated by atomic absorption spectrometry. Solutions containing KCl, $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ amounts of each salt being the equivalent amounts of cation contents in the plant extracts were administered intravenously to the anesthetized rats to ascertain the effect of these injections on the blood pressure. Four rats were used in this experiment.

Statistics

All data were presented as Mean \pm S.E.M. Student's t-test was used whenever applicable. The level of significance was $P < 0.05$. Linear regression was used to calculate the ED_{50} of the extracts.

RESULT

The Sargassum extract (SFE) produced a dose dependent decrease in the blood pressure of the anesthetized rats. The log-dose response curves are shown in Fig. 3.1.1. Tachyphylaxis was apparent at high doses, the responses of the first injection differed significantly ^{from} with that of the second injection. The % decreases in the blood pressure following the first and second injection at the maximum dose (30 mg/kg) were 49.4 ± 4.5 and 28.3 ± 2.6 respectively. The time profiles of the depressor responses were shown in Fig. 3.1.2. The maximum decrease in blood pressure at various doses all appeared at about 100 sec after injection. The duration of the response was longer at high dose than low dose, as judged by the MAP 200 sec following injection.

The Calendula extract (COE) also exhibited a hypotensive effect. The effect was dose-related (Fig. 3.1.3). Tachyphylaxis was also observed. The maximum response was obtained at dose of 600 mg/kg with decreases in MAP at two successive injections being $45.33 \pm 5.25\%$ and $25.12 \pm 3.16\%$. The duration of the response at this maximum dose was usually very long, lasting more than half an hour. The time profiles of the responses were shown in Fig. 3.1.4. The responses were biphasic, a very drastic but short-lived drop in blood pressure followed by a mild long

lasting hypotension. The first drastic drop seemed to be due to respiratory inhibition of the rat. In normal condition, the anesthetized rat breathed with an even rhythm. However, right after the COE injection the rate of breathing slowed down, and even completely stopped temporary at the maximum dose. Respiration resumed in a short time, accompanied with the recovery of blood pressure. Since it was so short lived, only the second half of the response was considered as the hypotensive response of the COE.

The Clematis extract (COE) showed vasodepressing effects which were dose-dependent (Fig. 3.1.5). The maximum response was $47.04 \pm 4.95\%$ decrease in MAP at the dose of 250 mg/kg. The duration of the response was also very long lasting, usually more than half an hour. Only one dose was tested in each rat. The time profiles of the responses were shown in Fig. 3.1.6.

Acacia extract (ACE) produced a log-dose dependent depressor response in rats (Fig. 3.1.7). The dose for maximum response was 80 mg/kg. Tachyphylaxis was apparent at this dosage and the responses of the first and the second injections were 50.26 ± 7.44 and $24.26 \pm 2.68\%$ decrease in MAP respectively. The difference was statistically significant. The duration of the responses varied with dosage - the higher the dosage the longer the duration (Fig. 3.1.8). The duration of the responses at

maximum dose was about an hour.

The linear regression for the dose response curves and the ED_{50} are listed in Table 3.1.1. The r value, thus the slope, of the regression lines are about the same, however, the potencies are different as adjudged by ED_{50} . The SFE was the most potent one, while the COE was the least.

The potassium, calcium and magnesium contents of the four plant extracts are shown in Table 3.1.2. The COE had the highest cation content and the ACE the lowest. Changes in MAP following injections of solutions containing equivalent amounts of cations in the plant extracts are presented in Table 3.1.3. The volume of the injected solutions ranged from 0.05 to 0.2 ml. The hypotensive responses produced by these injections usually had a very short duration and lasted for only about 30 sec. However, the injection of solution with cation content equivalent to 400 mg COE/kg killed all four animals with a marked respiratory inhibition.

DISCUSSION

The present study shows that all four plant extracts tested show hypotensive effect in rats. Although they all produced a maximum decrease of about 45% in blood pressure, their potencies are quite different. They also differ in the duration of their responses. COE elicits the longest response, and SFD the shortest. It is obvious that tachyphylaxis appears in these responses produced by the extracts, except perhaps Clematis extracts for which the second injection had not been tested. It is a mechanism of the body to neutralize the effect of the extracts. But how this mechanism is turned on is not known.

It is peculiar that the injection of COE produced a biphasic response. Since the drop in the blood pressure right after the injection is so drastic, it is not known whether the mild hypotension appears afterward is due to some hypotensive actions of the extract or just a refractory phenomenon after the nose-dive in blood pressure.

A water extract of plant material contains many substances. For instance, various cations which are readily soluble in water are present in the extract. These can affect the cardiovascular system in the rat, e.g. an increase in the

calcium ion concentration can cause vasoconstriction by increasing the influx of Ca^{2+} into the smooth muscle cells. An increase in magnesium ion concentration can cause powerful vasodilatation by inhibiting the vascular smooth muscle contraction (69,70). A surge in the extracellular potassium ion can produce a vasodilatation by stimulating the Na^+, K^+ -ATPase in the sarcolemma to produce a hyperpolarization (71).

The present data show that the hypotensive effects of the plants extracts are not ascribed to the presence of these cations, since the injections of the cation contents equivalent to those of all extracts except the COE, only produced a small decrease in blood pressure. This small and short-lived drop can be explained as an artifact, as it occurs right after the injection of the extracts. The cation content of the COE at the maximum dose killed the rats with respiratory inhibition and this might explain the observed phenomenon after COE injection. It should be noticed that the cations content of COE is the highest and the dose for maximum response production is also the highest amount of the four extracts. So steps to eliminate the cations are necessary before any examination on its actions can be done.

Legend

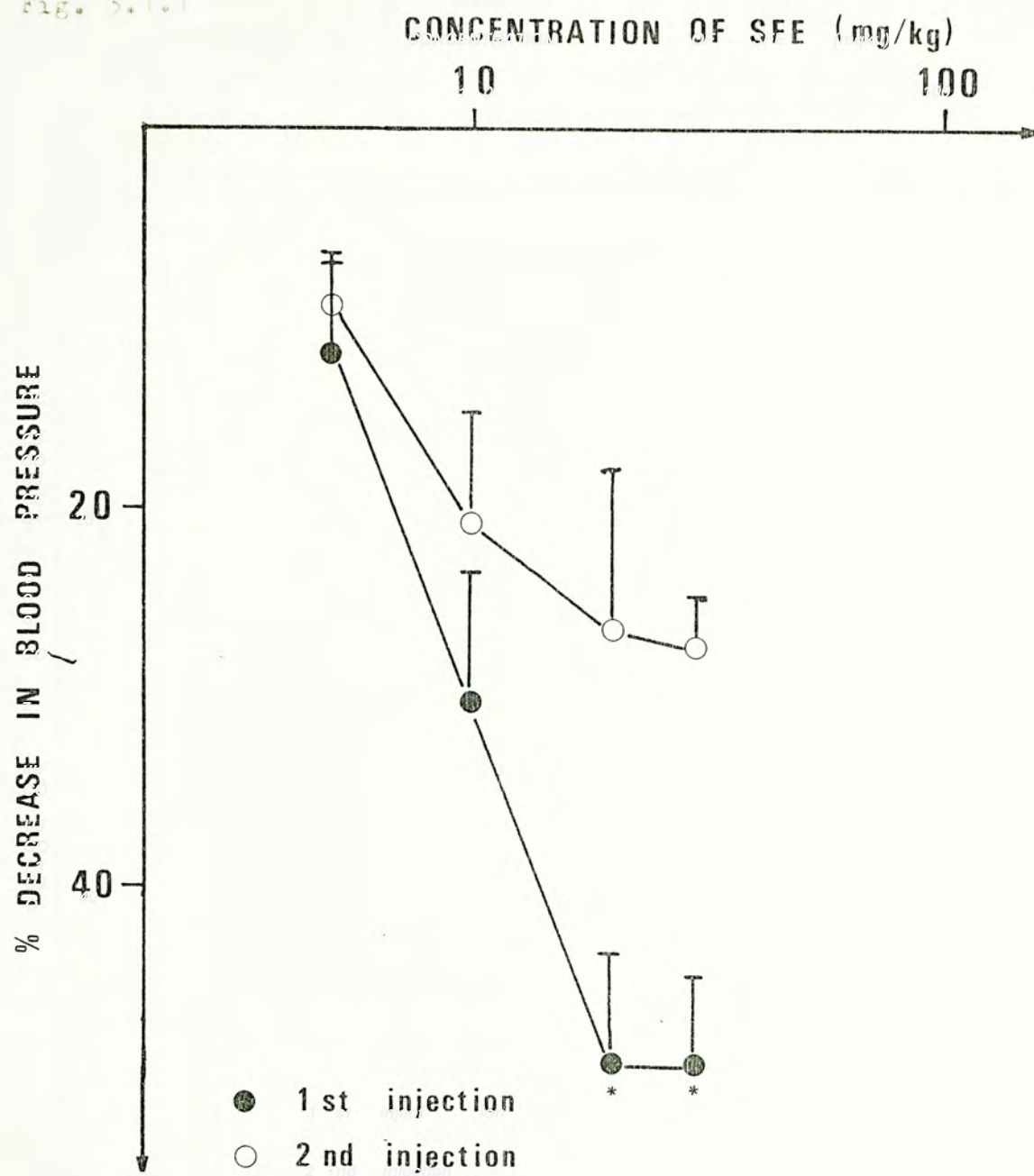
- Fig. 3.1.1 The hypotensive effect of Sargassum extract (SFE). The initial MAP was 139.33 ± 2.28 mmHg (n=40). * represents significant difference between the first and the second injection at the same dose. Vertical bars represent S.E.M.
- Fig. 3.1.2 The time profile of the depressor response in rats after the injections of Sargassum extract (SFE) at the various dosages.
- Fig. 3.1.3 The hypotensive effect of the Calendula extract (COE). The initial MAP was 119.10 ± 3.30 mmHg (n=40). * represents significant difference between the first and second injection at the same dose.
- Fig. 3.1.4 The time profile of the depressor response in rat after the injections of Calendula extract (COE) at the various dosages.
- Fig. 3.1.5 The hypotensive effect of Clamatis extract (CCE). The initial MAP was 151.05 ± 3.07 mmHg (n=22).

Fig. 3.1.6 The time profile of the depressor response in rat after the injection of Clematis extract (CCE) at the various dosage.

Fig. 3.1.7 The hypotensive effect of Acacia extract (ACE).
The initial MAP was 119.00 ± 2.85 mmHg (n=25).
* represents significant difference between the first and the second injection at the same dose.

Fig. 3.1.8 The time profile of the depressor response in rats after the injections of Acacia extract (ACE) at the various dosage.

Fig. 3.1.1



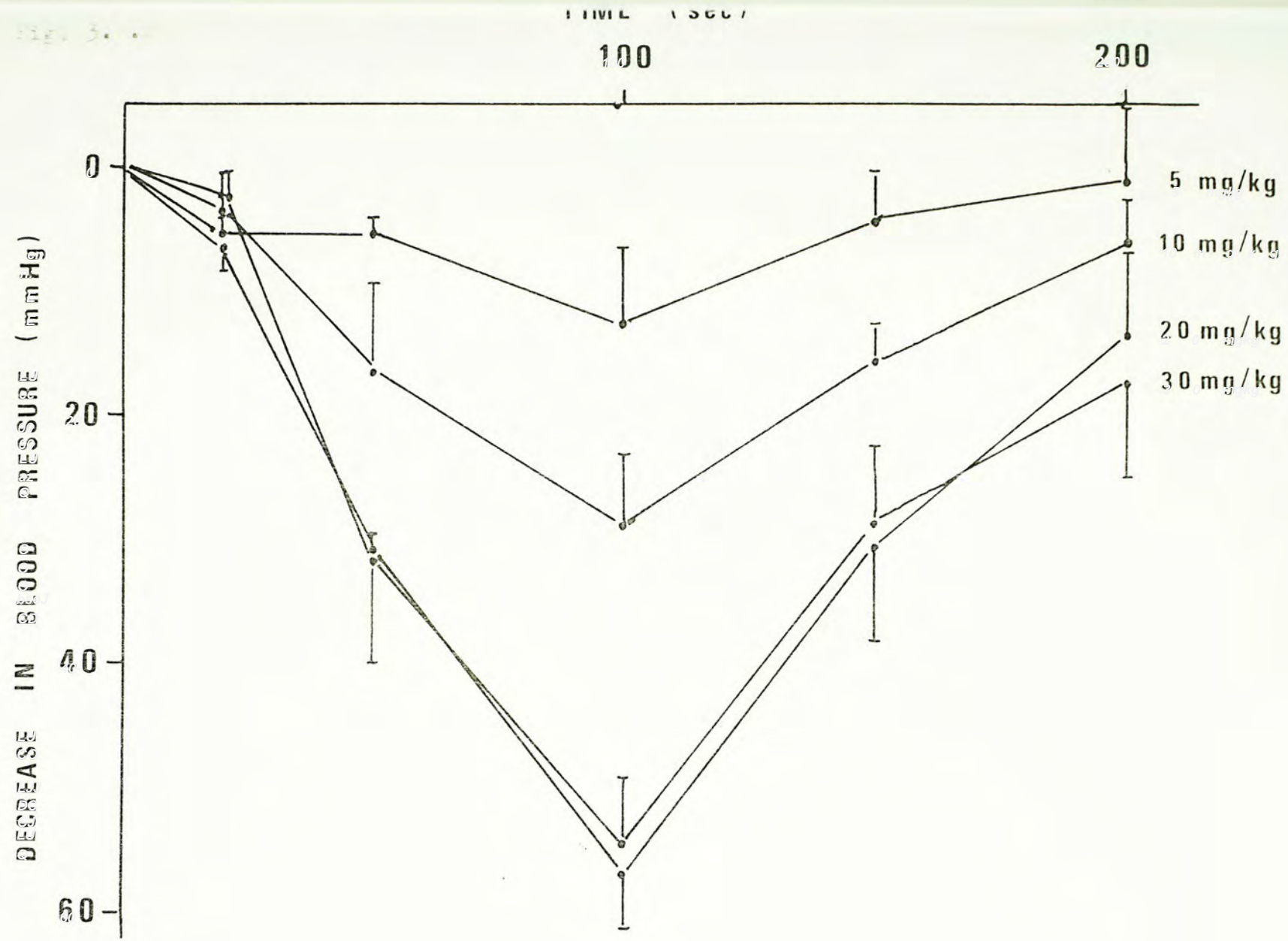
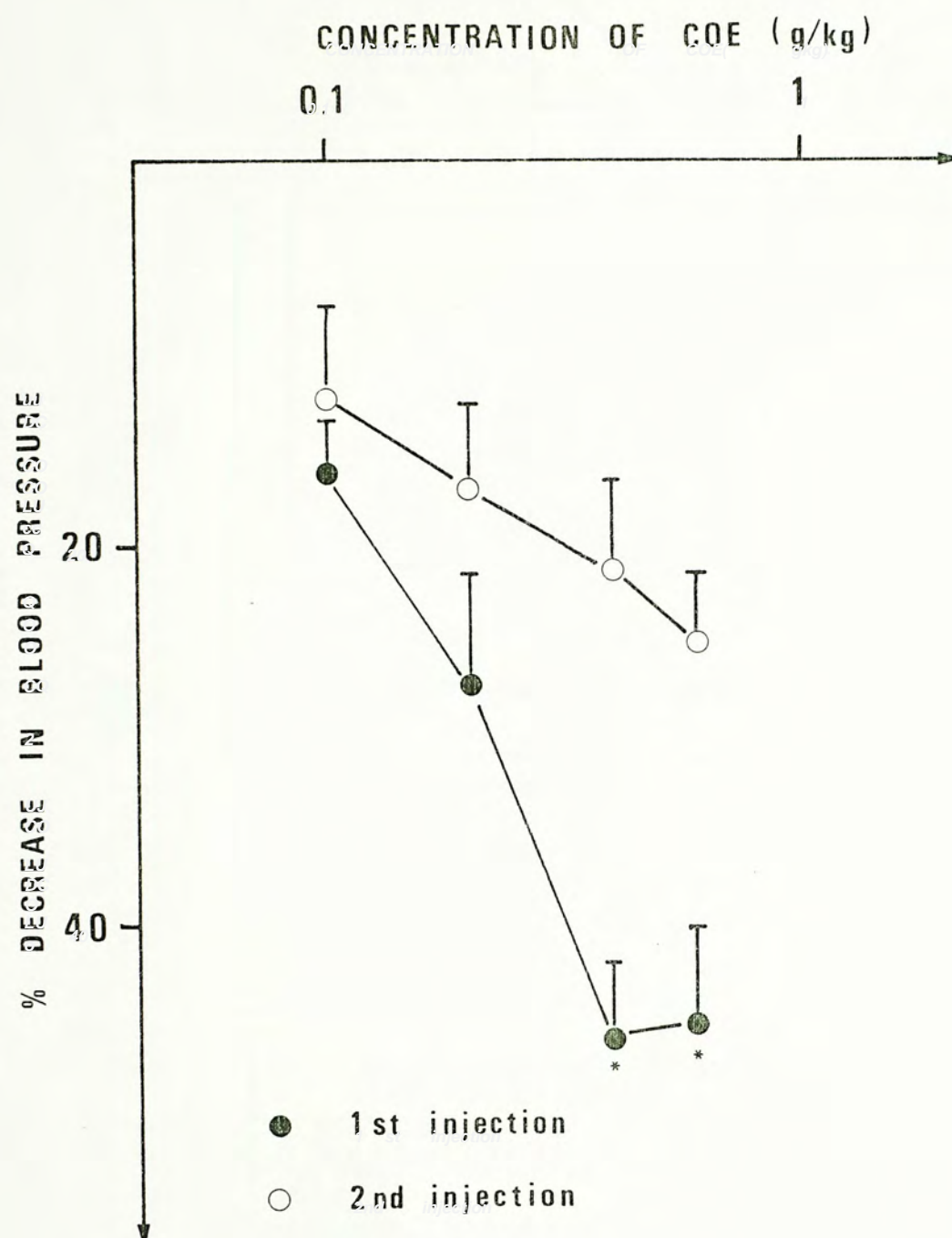
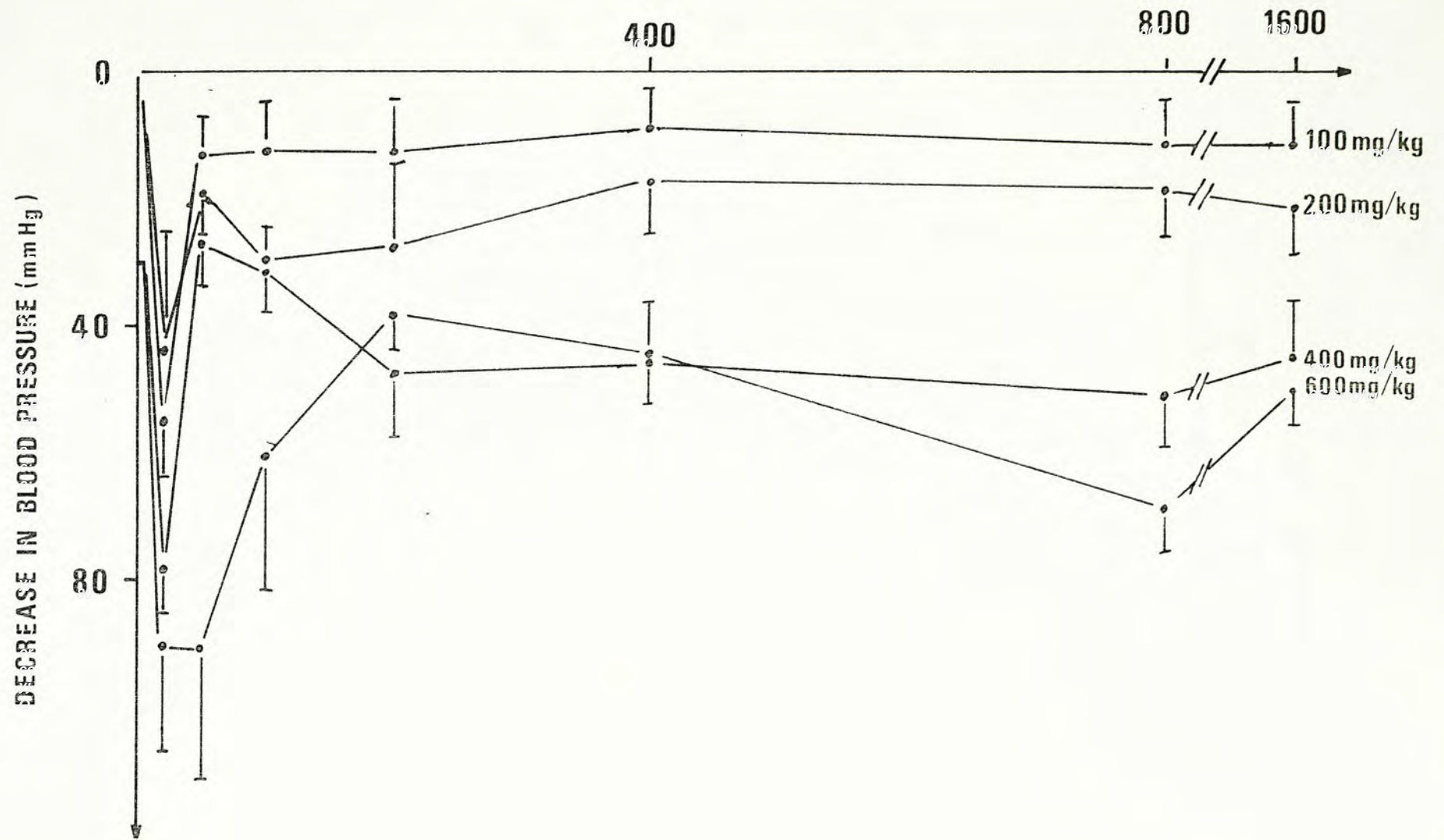


Fig. 3.1.3



TIME (sec)



3.1.5

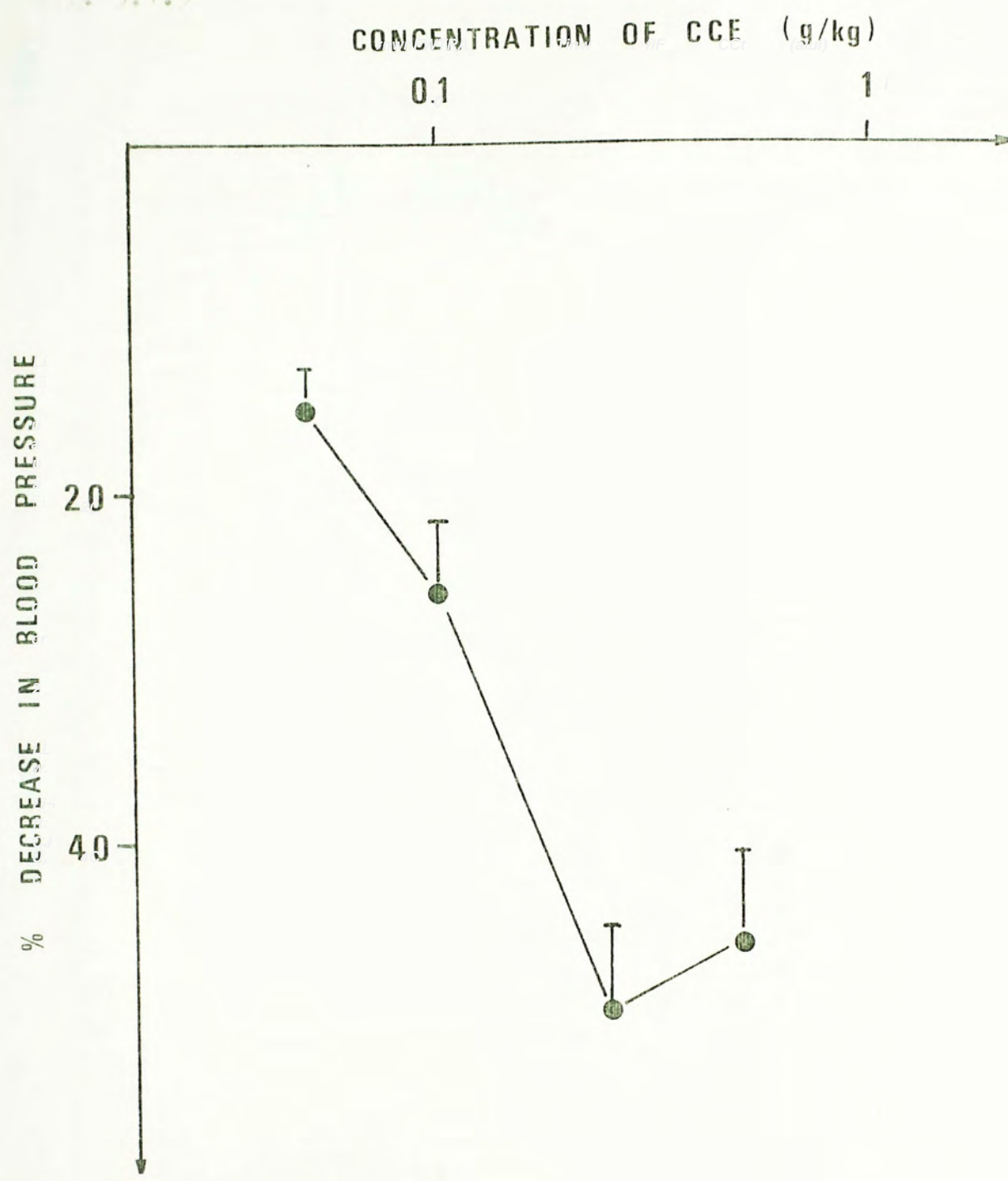


Fig. 3.1.6

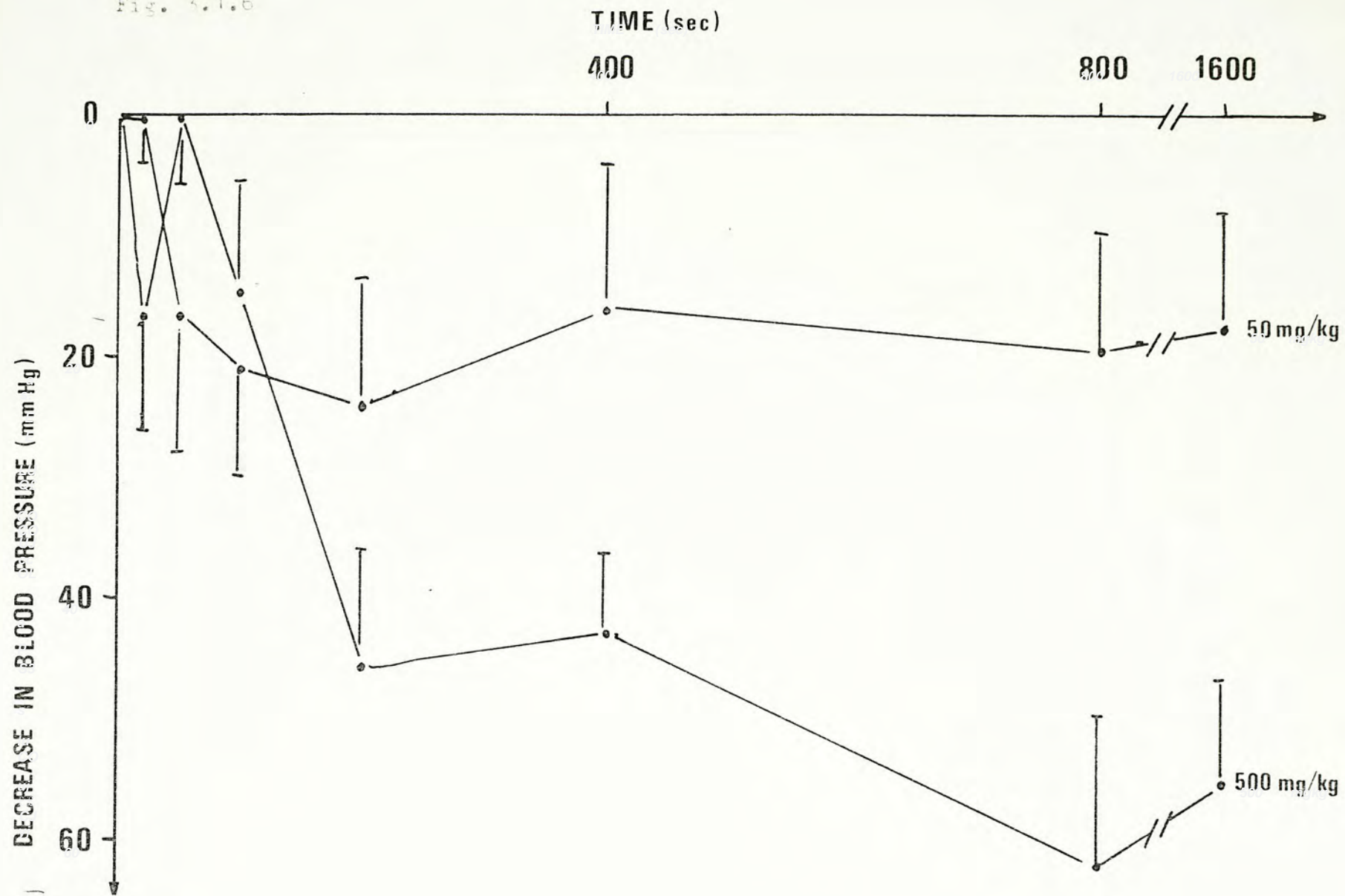
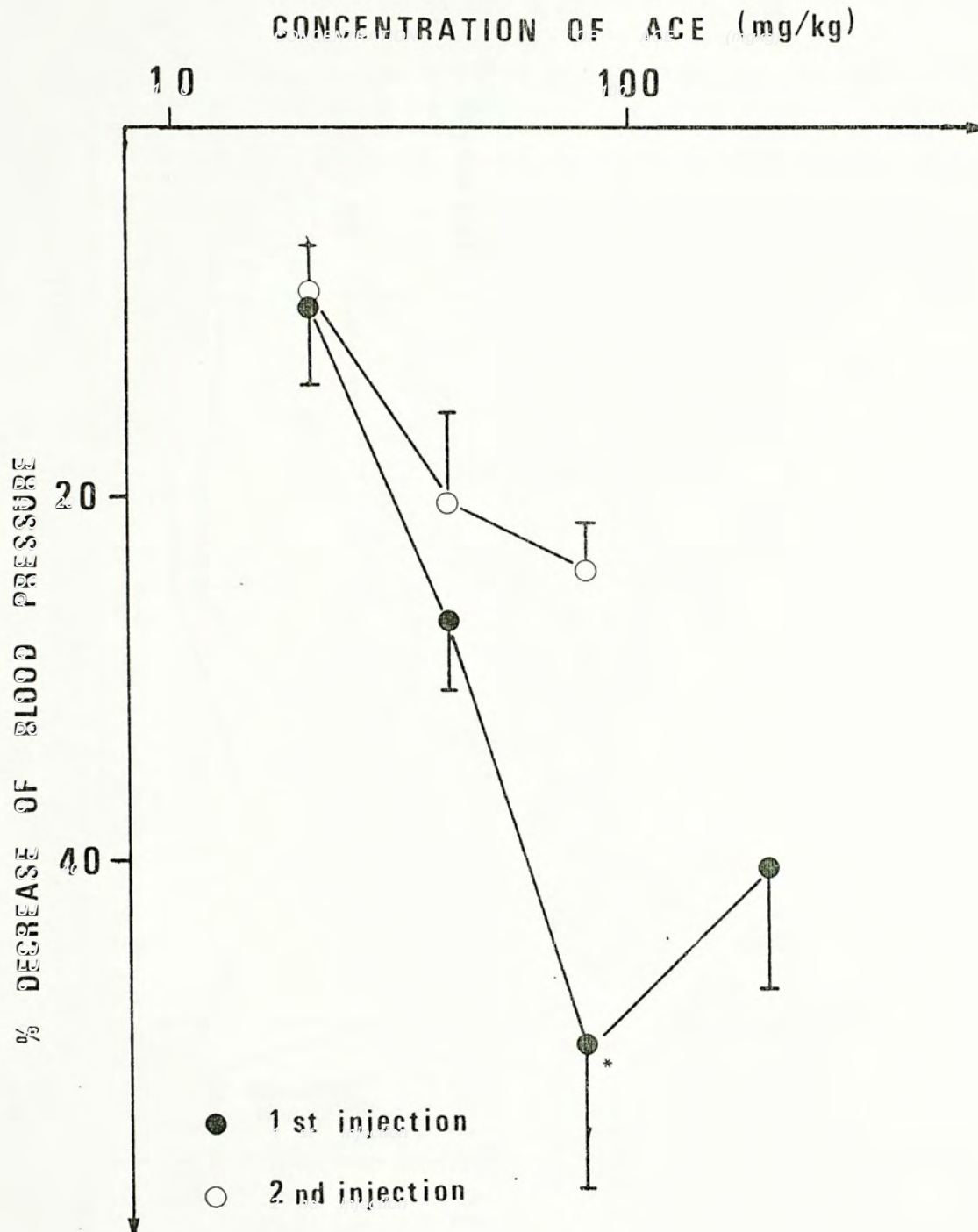


Fig. 5.1.2



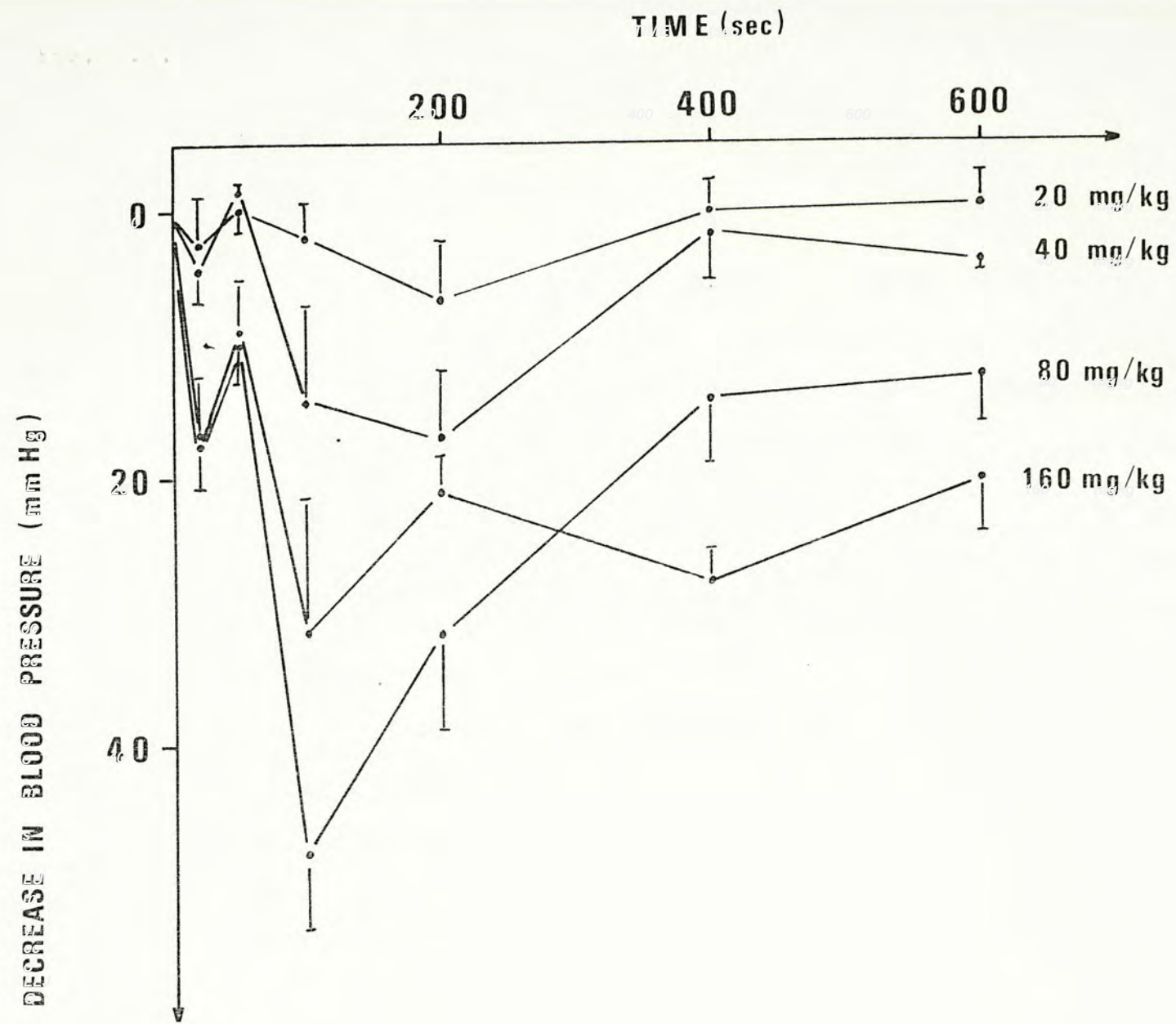


Table 3.1.1

The linear regression of the log-dose response curves and the ED_{50} s of the plant extracts in rats.

<u>The regression line</u>				
	a	b	r	ED_{50} (mg/kg)
<u>Acacia catechu</u>	78.43	-29.14	-0.87	34.94
extract (ACE)				
<u>Calendula officinalis</u>	83.84	-21.46	-0.76	145.29
extract (CEE)				
<u>Clematis chinensis</u>	68.24	-20.35	-0.65	90.53
extract (CEE)				
<u>Sargassum fusiforme</u>	31.99	-27.09	-0.80	17.53
extract (SFE)				

Table 3.1.2 The cation contents of the plant extracts.

	mg/g of plant extract		
	K ⁺	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺
<u>Clematis chinensis</u>	3.35±0.01	39.49±0.83	34.96±0.32
extract (COE)			
<u>Calendula officinalis</u>	60.19±0.84	88.89±0.56	63.72±0.45
extract (COE)			
<u>Acacia catechu</u>	0.83±0.02	10.32±0.02	24.83±1.20
extract (ACE)			
<u>Sargassum fusiforme</u>	7.28±0.01	85.17±0.80	14.15±1.11
extract (SFE)			

Table 3.1.3 The effect of solutions with cations contents
equivalents to the maximum doses of the extracts.

	Decrease in MAP	% decrease in MAP
CCE (250 mg/kg)	26.25±2.95	20.48±2.40
COE (400 mg/kg)	116.50±3.23	92.10±2.86
ACE (100 mg/kg)	14.0±1.78	10.28±1.42
SFE (20 mg/kg)	1.75±1.44	1.27±1.03

∞

The initial MAP of the rats is 129.25±1.59 mmHg (n=16).

SECTION TWO

THE STUDY ON THE HYPOTENSIVE ACTION OF
ACACIA CATECHU

After the earlier study (section 1), the water extract of Acacia catechu Osbeck was chosen among the four medicinal plants for further study on its hypotensive action. This choice was based on the potency and also the duration of the response. The ACE has a longer duration of response than SFE and is more potent than the CCE. Furthermore, the cations present in the extract do not play any part in the hypotensive action. In this study, attempts were made to delineate whether the action of ACE observed earlier is a direct one, or via various vasoactive substances. Both in vivo and in vitro systems were used. The in vivo systems involved both the anesthetized dogs and rats, and in vitro systems involved the isolated rat tail artery and the isolated rat right atrium.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

(A) In vivo experiments

1) In anesthetized dogs

4 dogs of both sexes, weighing 8 to 12 kg, were anesthetized with an intravenous injection of 30mg of sodium pentobarbital per kg of body weight. An incision was made in the upper part of the right thigh. A segment of the right femoral artery and vein were isolated from the surrounding tissue and cannulated with polyethylene tubing PE-200. The trachea was also intubated, and the animals were allowed to breathe spontaneously (85). Several bolus injections of different doses of water extract of Acacia were given to each dog. Each injection was followed by a wash of 2 ml of 0.9% saline. The arterial blood pressure was recorded and the change in the MAP was determined as described before.

2) In anesthetized rats

Male Sprague-Dawley rats weighing between 170-250 g. were anesthetized and prepared as described before (section 1). Several bolus injections of the water extract of Acacia at different doses were given to each rat. Each injection was followed by a wash of 0.3 ml of 0.9% saline. 5 animals were tested.

3) Pharmacological antagonist studies in rats

The mechanism of the hypotensive property of Acacia extract was studied by using different blockers. Its interactions with the autonomic ganglion transmission, α -adrenergic, β -adrenergic, acetylcholine, histamine-1, histamine-2 receptors and the kinin system were also studied.

Rats were prepared as outlined before. In cases of continuous infusion of blockers, the left femoral vein was cannulated with a PE-50 cannula. Blockers were infused into the animal by a compact infusion pump (Harvard apparatus). Acacia extract at 16 mg/kg body weight was tested during the studies. Each blocker was tested with 5 animals.

a) Autonomic ganglion transmission

Ecolid, which is an autonomic ganglion blocker was injected intravenously at dose of 1 mg/kg body weight to pretreat the rats. After the depressed blood pressure became constant, a bolus injection of Acacia extract was given. The change in MAP was recorded.

b) α -adrenoceptor

The effect of the α -adrenoceptor blockade on the hypotensive action of Acacia extract was examined. An effective dose of methoxamine (50 μ g/kg), which is an α -agonist, was injected intravenously to observe the pressor effect. A dose of phentolamine (2 mg/kg) was then injected slowly to give a

α -blockade. As soon as the MAP became steady, the same dose of methoxamine was given again. If the pressor effect was blocked, a test dose of Acacia extract was then given immediately.

c) β -adrenoceptor

A β -agonist, isoproterenol (0.2 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), was injected intravenously and its vasodepressor effect was observed. A blocking dose of propranolol (2 mg/kg) was then injected and the β -blockade was ensured by testing with the same dose of isoproterenol. Acacia extract was then injected and the change in MAP was recorded.

d) Acetylcholine receptor

Acetylcholine, at dose of 2 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ was injected intravenously to observe its hypotensive response. Rats were then atropinized with 2 mg/kg atropine. The effectiveness of the muscarinic receptor blockade was verified by obtaining a diminished response of acetylcholine at the same dose. A test dose of Acacia extract was then followed.

e) Histamine receptors

A bolus injection of histamine, a powerful vasodepressor was given intravenously at dose of 2 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ to the rat to observe the hypotensive response. Pyrilamine and cimetidine,

a H_1 and H_2 receptor blocker respectively, were then injected together at dose of 10 mg/kg each. The blockade was examined by injecting the same dose of histamine. If the action of histamine was blocked, a dose of Acacia extract was then given immediately.

f) Kinin system

i) The possible interaction between the hypotensive effect of Acacia extract and the kinin system was studied by using a converting enzyme inhibitor, Captopril (SQ14,225) (73).

The converting enzyme inhibition was tested by injecting angiotensin I at dose of 40 ng/kg before and after captopril infusion. At first, a test dose of Acacia extract was injected to observe the hypotensive action. Captopril (SQ14,225), 10 μ g/min/kg was infused into the rat through the femoral vein at rate of 0.07 ml/min. After at least 30 mins of infusion, the same dose of Acacia extract was given again. The decrease in MAP and also the duration of the response were recorded. In the experiment, the duration of the response was represented by the period of time needed for the 75% recovery of the MAP after the injection of drugs.

ii) The effect of captopril infusion on bradykinin and Acacia extract was studied. Acacia extract and bradykinin (10 μ g/kg) were tested separately before and after captopril infusion.

The decrease in the MAP and the duration of 75% recovery were recorded for comparison.

(B) In vitro experiments

1) Isolated rat tail artery

Male Sprague-Dawley rats, weighing 300-400 g were used in the experiment. They were killed by decapitation and an incision was made in the ventral side of the tail. The ventral tail artery was isolated quickly and placed in Krebs Henseleit (K-H) solution of the following composition: 115.0 mM NaCl, 5.0 mM KCl, 25.0 mM NaHCO₃, 1.2 mM NaH₂PO₄, 2.1 mM CaCl₂, 1.2 mM MgSO₄ and 11.0 mM dextrose. The solution was continuously aerated by 95% O₂ and 5% CO₂. The arteries were cleaned of connective and fat tissues and the helical strips were then prepared as described (74,75). A 2 cm strip of rat tail artery was cut under a dissection microscope at an angle of 45°. The helical strip, 2 mm in width and 3 cm in length, was suspended inside a tissue chamber containing 10 ml of aerated K-H solution which was maintained at 37°C. The two ends of the helical strip were tied by silk threads and connected to the bottom of the tissue chamber and a force displacement transducer (Grass FT03) above. Isometric contractions were recorded on a polygraph (Grass model 79). Before exposure to drugs, the tail artery preparation was equilibrated for 60 min. under a resting tension of 0.7 g. Arginine vasopressin

at dose of 2 mM/ml or methoxamine at dose of 0.2 μ g/ml were added directly into the chambers to induce vasoconstriction. When a steady tension was achieved, Acacia extract was added to the tissue chamber and cumulative dose-responses were obtained. The entire dose-response curve was done within 20 mins, during which the contractile effect of AVP or methoxamine was not altered. Bradykinin (1 μ g/ml) was also tested for comparison. Four successful preparations were used in the experiment.

2) Isolated rat atrium

Male Sprague-Dawley rats, weighing 170-250 g were killed by decapitation. A thoracotomy was performed and the heart was excised rapidly and placed in continuously aerated K-H solution. The atrial tissue was prepared as described (76). The right atrium was isolated and suspended inside a tissue chamber containing 10 ml of aerated K-H solution at 37°C. The two ends of the atrial tissue were tied by silk threads which connected to the bottom of the tissue chamber and a Grass force displacement transducer. Isometric contractions were recorded on a Grass polygraph. The atria were allowed to beat spontaneously and atria with arrhythmical beatings were discarded. Before the administration of drugs, the atrial tissue was equilibrated for 30 min under a resting tension of 1 g. Acacia extract was added directly into the

tissue chamber and the atria were washed and equilibrated after each test of drugs. Bradykinin at concentration of 1 μ g/ml was also tested for comparison. Six atrial tissue preparations were used in the experiment.

Statistics

All values are expressed in Mean \pm S.E.M. Student's t-test are used whenever applicable. The level of significance is P smaller than 0.05. The ED₅₀ of the log-dose response curves are calculated according to Fleming et al (77).

Drugs

Phentolamine (Pegitine HCl) (CIBA), methoxamine (Burroughs Wellcome Co.), isoproterenol HCl (Sigma), propranolol HCl (Sigma), atropine (Sigma), acetylcholine (Sigma), cimetidine (Sigma), pyrilamine maleate (Sigma), histamine dihydrochloride (Sigma), captopril (SQ 14,225) (SKF), angiotensin I (Pennisula), bradykinin (Sigma).

RESULT

(A) In vivo experiments

1) In anesthetized dogs and rats

ACE produced a hypotensive response in both normotensive dogs and rats. The log-dose response curves are presented in Fig. 3.2.1. In dogs, ACE produced a maximum decrease of 34.3 ± 4.2 mmHg in blood pressure at dose of 40 mg/kg. The ED_{50} was 10.4 (8.9-12.1) mg/kg Mean (95% confidence interval) . The MAP of the dogs before each injection was 123.9 ± 3.0 mmHg (n=16).

The maximum response to ACE in rats was a decrease of 39.3 mmHg in MAP at dose of 80 mg/kg. The ED_{50} was 14.1 (9.0-22.2) mg/kg. The MAP of the rats before each injection was 130.6 ± 2.0 mmHg (n=23). There was no significant difference between the ED_{50} of ACE in dogs and rats.

2) Pharmacological antagonist studies in rats

The hypotensive effect of ACE did not seem to act on the CNS. After the administration of a ganglion blocker, ecolid, the hypotensive effect of ACE could still be seen. Ecolid (1 mg/kg) injection caused a decrease of 45.0 ± 7.3 mmHg in MAP and an ED_{50} dose of ACE (16 mg/kg) gave a further decrease of 18.2 ± 1.7 mmHg in blood pressure. Comparing the MAP before and after ACE injection, there was a significant

decrease in blood pressure under ecolid induced blockade (Fig. 3.2.2).

Phentolamine blocked the pressor effect of methoxamine (50 μ g/kg) significantly, from 34.2 ± 3.0 to 3.8 ± 1.2 mmHg. But it could not block the depressor effect of ACE, which caused a decrease of 44.4 ± 5.3 mmHg in blood pressure after phentolamine induced α -blockade (Fig. 3.2.3). Phentolamine (2mg/kg) itself produced a decrease of 51.6 ± 6.6 mmHg in blood pressure.

The depressor effect of isoproterenol diminished significantly after the administration of propranolol. However, the hypotensive effect of ACE was unaffected and decreased the MAP by 33.8 ± 6.7 mmHg (Fig. 3.2.4).

The depressor response of rats to ACE was not mediated through cholinergic receptors. Atropine, which blocked the hypotensive response of acetylcholine completely, did not affect that ACE which caused a 42.0 ± 5.7 mmHg decrease in MAP (Fig. 3.2.5).

The intravenous injection of combined histamine blockers, pyrilamine and cimetidine, blocked the depressor effect of histamine completely. But the hypotensive effect of ACE was left undisturbed after the injection of these blockers, and

produced a depressor response of 43.2 ± 7.2 mmHg (Fig. 3.2.6).

The infusion of captopril caused a decrease in the pressor effect of angiotensin I from 23.0 ± 3.48 to 7.8 ± 2.03 mmHg. The difference was statistically significant. However, captopril did not affect the depressor effect of ACE significantly, although a small increase in response was observable (Fig. 3.2.7a). The response durations before and after captopril infusion were 3.3 ± 0.3 min and 7.0 ± 1.2 min respectively. Thus, the response of ACE was prolonged significantly by captopril infusion (Fig. 3.2.7b).

In the experiment on the effect of captopril on bradykinin and ACE, captopril prolonged the duration of response of bradykinin ($1 \mu\text{g/kg}$) from 1.3 ± 0.3 min to 7.5 ± 1.2 min, but it did not affect the magnitude of the depressor response. On the other hand, both the magnitude and the response duration were potentiated by captopril infusion (Fig. 3.2.8).

The control value of the hypotensive response of ACE at dose of 16 mg/kg without under the influence of any antagonist or inhibitors was 45.0 ± 7.3 mmHg ($n=7$).

(B) In vitro experiments

1) Isolated rat tail artery

ACE produced dose-dependent relaxation in the helical strips of rat tail artery (Fig. 3.2.9). The log-dose response curves are shown in Fig. 3.2.10. Two different vasoconstrictors, arginine vasopressin (2 mU/ml) and methoxamine (0.2 μ g/ml), were used to precontract the arteries. They generated tensions of 0.69 ± 0.03 g and 0.73 ± 0.05 g respectively. The EC_{50} which is defined as the concentration of ACE to reduce half of the precontracted tension of the helical strips, for the AVP precontracted strips was 0.051 (0.014-0.183) mg/kg and that for the methoxamine precontracted one was 0.373 (0.248-0.561) mg/kg. The latter one had a value about seven times higher than the former one, and their difference was significant. Bradykinin (1 μ g/ml) induced a transient vasoconstriction of 0.12 ± 0.03 g (n=6), instead of relaxation in the rat tail artery.

2) Isolated rat atrium

The cardiac action of ACE was also studied, it produced both positive chronotropic and inotropic responses in isolated right rat atrium. The responses were dose-dependent and the log-dose response curves for these actions are shown in Fig. 3.2.11. ACE stimulated a maximum increase of 28.3 ± 6.1 beats/min in heart rate at dose of 1 mg/ml. The EC_{50} was

0.144 (0.125-0.166) mg/ml. The normal heart rate before the addition of drugs was 307 ± 5 beats/min. ACE also caused an increase in the atrial contractile force. The concentration for producing a 50% increase in contractile force ($EC_{50\%}$) was 0.570 (0.353-0.926) mg/ml. The initial atrial contractile force before the addition of any drug was 0.300 ± 0.046 g. Bradykinin (1 μ g/ml) was also shown to possess positive chronotropic and inotropic actions. It stimulated an increase of 35 ± 3 beats/min in heart rate, and $38.1 \pm 8.92\%$ in contractile force.

DISCUSSION

The present study demonstrated a hypotensive effect of the aqueous extract of Acacia catechu (ACE) in both dogs and rats. The ED₅₀s obtained from the log-dose response curves indicate that the hypotensive effects are about same extent in these two different experimental animals.

The reduction in blood pressure by intravenous injection of an extract may of course be due to some non-specific factors other than the specific one. For instance, the concentration of the different ions present in the extract which we have already encountered in the previous section. The histamine release is another non-specific factor that may account for the hypotensive response. Indeed, the direct injection of foreign substances into the blood stream may stimulate histamine release from the mast cells and basophils as an immunological response or due to the damage of these cells (78). Histamine can induce a depressor response which involve both H₁ and H₂ receptors (79), and the H₁ receptors are the predominant vascular histamine receptors (80).

The present data shows that the combined injection of pyrilamine and cimetidine, specific H₁ and H₂ antagonist

respectively, at doses which can block the effect of agonists (81), do not attenuate the hypotensive effect of ACE. Furthermore, dogs are usually more sensitive to the hypotensive action of histamine than rats, however, the depressor response of ACE does not differ significantly between dogs and rats. The available data suggest that the depressor effect of ACE is independent of histamine release.

The hypotensive effect of ACE does not seem to act on the CNS. It is because the hypotensive effect of ACE still persists after the administration of ecolid, a ganglion blocker, although the response is to a lesser extent. The injection of ecolid produces a drop in blood pressure and it is a characteristic of ganglion blockade. This depressor response is ascribed to the combined effect of dilatation of arteriole and veins (82).

In the present study, it is evident that the depressor effect of ACE is mediated via neither the α nor the β -adrenoceptors. Phentolamine and propranolol, which can produce α and β -receptor blockade, do not reduce the hypotensive effect of ACE. The sustained hypotensive state which appears after phentolamine injection is ascribed to the β -adrenergic vasodilatation probably because of the increase of catecholamine release resulting from the α_2 -blockade (83).

The possibility of cholinergic receptor mediated hypotension by ACE is also excluded, for the depressor response produced by ACE does not attenuate after the administration of atropine.

The involvement of the renin-angiotensin system and the kinin complexes in the ACE induced response has also been considered in the present study. Infusion of captopril (SQ 14,225), which is an orally active converting enzyme inhibitor (73,84), is found to potentiate the depressor response of ACE by lengthening the duration of the response. The converting enzyme or kininase II, is a peptidyl dipetidase which locates mainly in the lung and kidney (85). It can remove the dipeptide from the C-terminal of peptides or proteins (86). It serves a dual function of converting angiotensin I to angiotensin II and inactivating bradykinin (86). The inhibition of this enzyme by captopril is expected to inhibit the pressor effect of angiotensin I and potentiate the depressor effect of bradykinin due to the decrease in its breakdown. The potentiation of the hypotensive response of ACE after captopril infusion strongly suggests that the depressor response is bradykinin related. As significant reduction in the pressor effect of angiotensin I and significant potentiation of the depressor effect of bradykinin were observed, this confirms that the converting enzyme is effectively inhibited.

One may argue that the hypotensive effect of ACE may be related to the angiotensin system other than the kinin system, for the converting enzyme has a role in both systems. However, captopril infusion in the normotensive subjects do not produce a hypotensive effect as in the situation of activated renin and angiotensin system (86), so the angiotensin system does not seem to play an important part in maintaining the normal blood pressure. So disturbance of this system in the normotensive animals does not likely produce a rapid response of hypotension. Furthermore, if the hypotensive action of ACE is related to the angiotensin system, the α -adrenergic antagonists should have some effect on it. It is because the pressor effect of angiotensin is partially mediated by the α -adrenoceptors and should be largely reduced by α -adrenergic antagonists (87). However, phentolamine does not appear to affect the action of ACE. This finding suggest that the hypotensive effect of ACE is related to bradykinin than to the angiotensin system.

Up to this step, with reference to ACE's hypotensive effect, some questions as follows are waiting for answers.

1) Is bradykinin the hypotensive principle of ACE, or is it present in the ACE? In vivo bradykinin release can be induced by foreign substances, e.g. substances with negative charged surfaces, that can activate Hageman factor (HF) for blood clotting and fibrinolysis (88,89). 2) What is the mode of

action of ACE?

Data from the in vitro experiments provide answers to these questions. The ACE can produce vaso-relaxation independent of the kinin release in the experiment of the isolated rat tail artery. The kinin precursor, kininogen, which is present in the blood (90), is absent from the in vitro system. Thus the vaso-relaxation in the rat tail artery must have been induced by some active principles other than bradykinin present in the ACE. But, whether it is the same active substance/s that produce the vasodepressor response and the vasodilatation is unknown. However, vasodilatation certainly contributes an important part in the reduction of blood pressure. The active substance/s in ACE for vasodilatation, if it is the active hypotensive principle, is not bradykinin, because in this study bradykinin induces vasoconstriction on the rat tail artery as in some other vascular smooth muscle preparations (91).

It is interesting to note that ACE is more effective in the relaxation of the vasopressin precontracted rat tail arteries than the methoxamine precontracted one. Since these two vasoconstrictors are associated with different receptors for their actions, it may be presumed that the vasopressin activated constriction is more susceptible to the ACE induced

vaso-relaxation, and the reason is unknown. The low concentration of ACE for inducing vaso-relaxation in the AVP precontracted arteries, again excludes the possibility of the cations induced vaso-relaxation (section 1).

Finally, ACE produces positive inotropic and chronotropic responses in the isolated rat atrium. This cardiac stimulating effect of ACE in the in vitro system confirms the presence of biologically active compounds in ACE. The active principle may act through the various receptors present in the atrium or affect the stability of the cardiac cell membrane. But it is too early to comment on its cardiac stimulating actions.

From the present data, it can be said with certainty that the hypotensive principle/s present in ACE is/are peptide or protein in nature and can be inactivated by the converting enzyme (peptidyl dipeptidase). This is reasonable because the action of the converting enzyme is not very specific. It can cleave the dipeptide from the carboxyl end of any peptide, if the first amino acid is not a glutamic acid and/or the second one is not a proline. Since there is no report on the presence of the biologically active peptide or protein in Acacia catechu, this is the first report on this subject.

In conclusion, the hypotensive effect of ACE is due to the presence of one or more hypotensive peptides or proteins, and this effect is ascribed to vasodilatation. Furthermore, ACE possesses cardiac stimulating effect on both the atrial contractile force and contracting rate.

Legend

- Fig. 3.2.1 The log-dose response curve of the hypotensive effect of ACE on anesthetized dogs and rats.
- Fig. 3.2.2a The representative diagram showing the hypotensive effect of ACE after ecolid induced ganglion blockade.
- 3.2.2b The effect of ACE after ecolid induced ganglion blockade. * represents significant decrease in MAP of the ecolid pretreated rats after ACE injection.
- Fig. 3.2.3a The representative diagram showing the hypotensive effect of ACE after α -adrenoceptor blockade.
- 3.2.3b The effect of ACE after phentolamine induced α -adrenoceptor blockade. * represents significant decrease in the pressor effect of methoxamine after phentolamine treatment.
- Fig. 3.2.4a The representative diagram showing the hypotensive effect of ACE after β -adrenoceptor blockade.
- 3.2.4b The effect of ACE after propranolol induced β -adrenoceptor blockade. * represents significant decrease in the depressor response of isoproterenol after propranolol treatment.

Fig. 3.2.5a The representative diagram of the hypotensive effect of ACE after cholinergic receptor blockade.

3.2.5b The effect of ACE after atropine induced muscarinic receptor blockade. * represents the significant reduction in the depressor response of acetylcholine after atropine treatment.

Fig. 3.2.6a The representative diagram of the hypotensive effect of ACE after histamine receptor blockade.

3.2.6b The effect of the ACE after pyrilamine and cimetidine induced H_1 and H_2 receptor blockade. * represents the significant attenuation in the depressor response of histamine after the treatment of histamine blockers.

Fig. 3.2.7a The effect of captopril infusion on the hypotensive effect of ACE.

3.2.7b The effect of captopril infusion on the duration of the response of ACE. * represents significant difference.

Fig. 3.2.8a The effect of captopril infusion on the hypotensive effect of ACE with bradykinin as reference.

3.2.8b The effect of captopril infusion on the duration of the response of ACE, with bradykinin as reference. * represents significant difference.

Fig. 3.2.9 The representative diagram showing the effect of ACE on the a) AVP precontracted and b) methoxamine precontracted helical strips of the rat tail arteries.

Fig. 3.2.10 The dose response curve of the vaso-relaxing effect of ACE on the rat tail arteries. The initial tension of the AVP and methoxamine precontracted helical strips were 0.69 ± 0.03 g and 0.73 ± 0.05 g respectively. Four preparations were used.

Fig. 3.2.11 The dose-response curve of the positive chronotropic and inotropic effect of ACE on the isolated right rat atrium.

Fig. 3.2.1

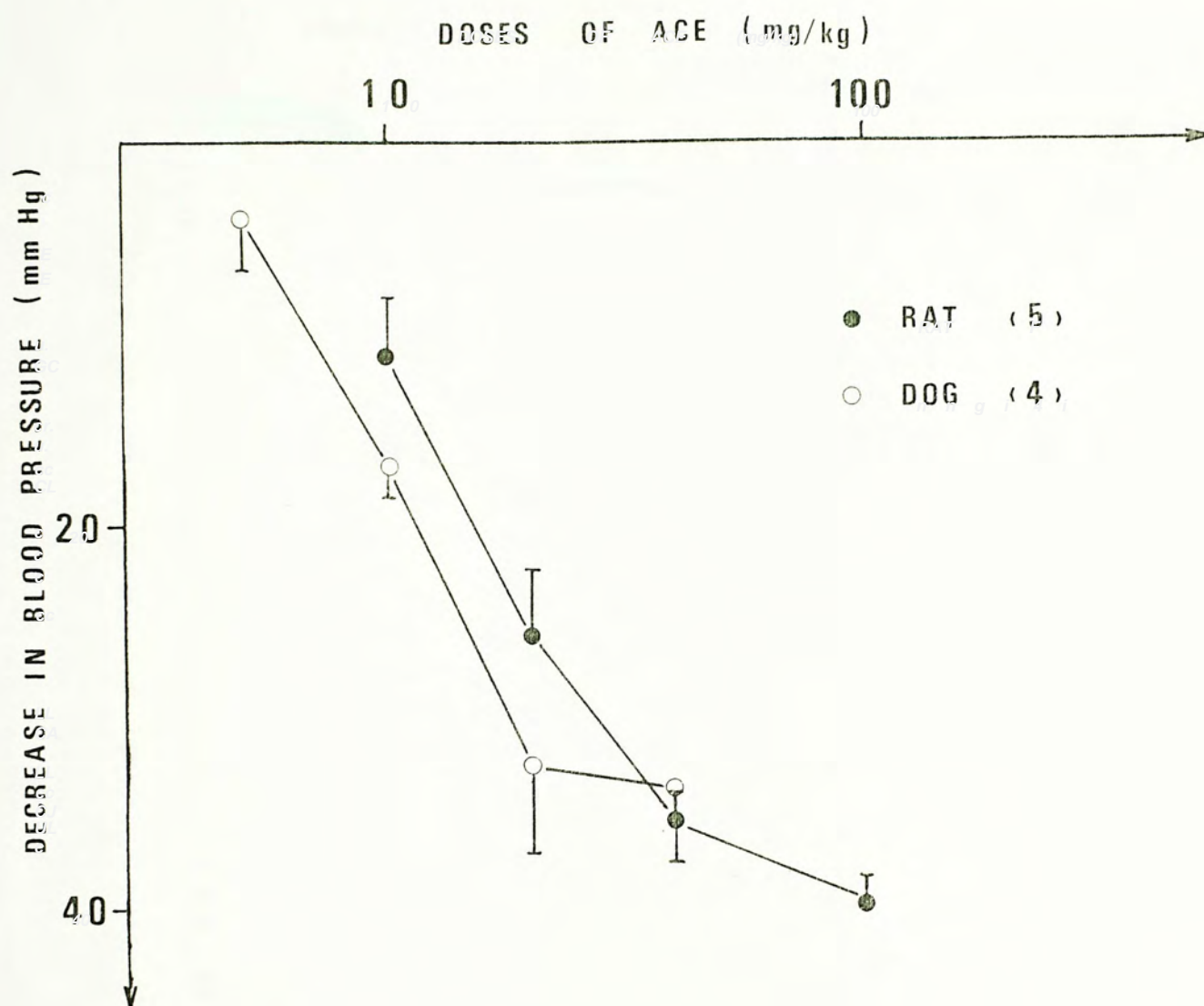


Fig. 3.2.2a, b

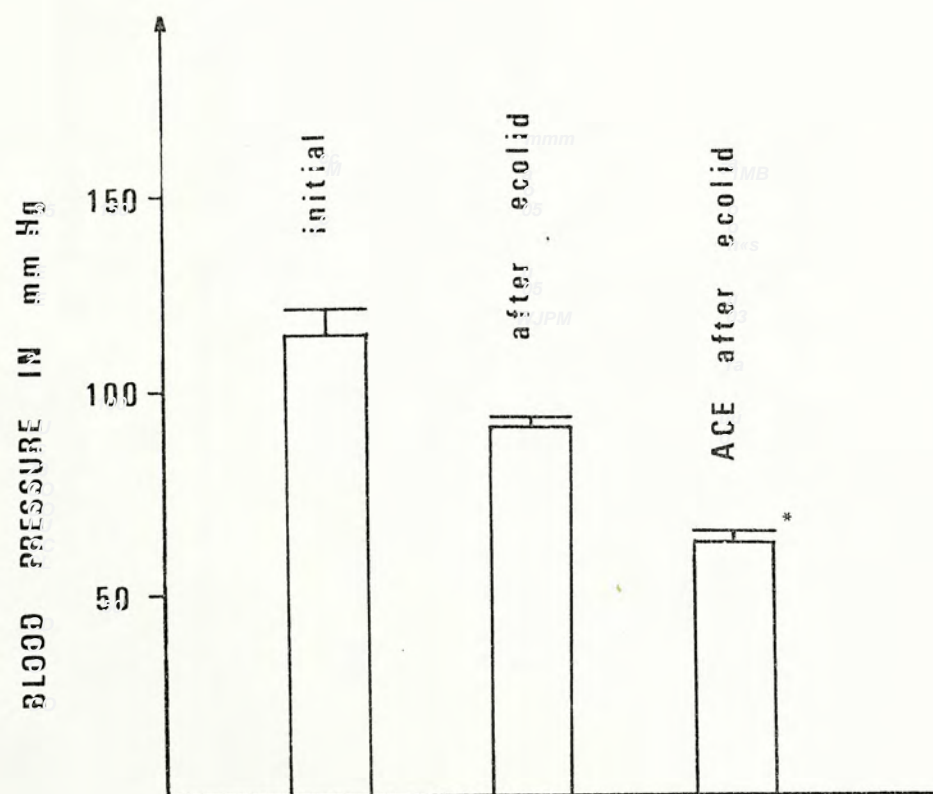


Fig. 3.2.3a,b

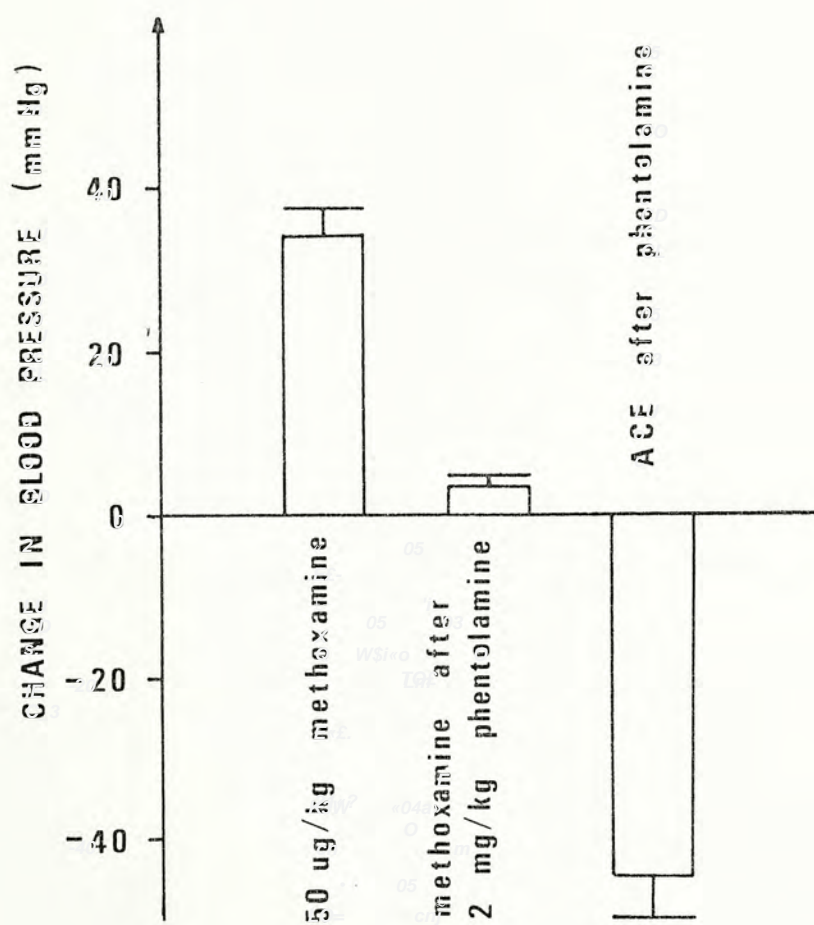
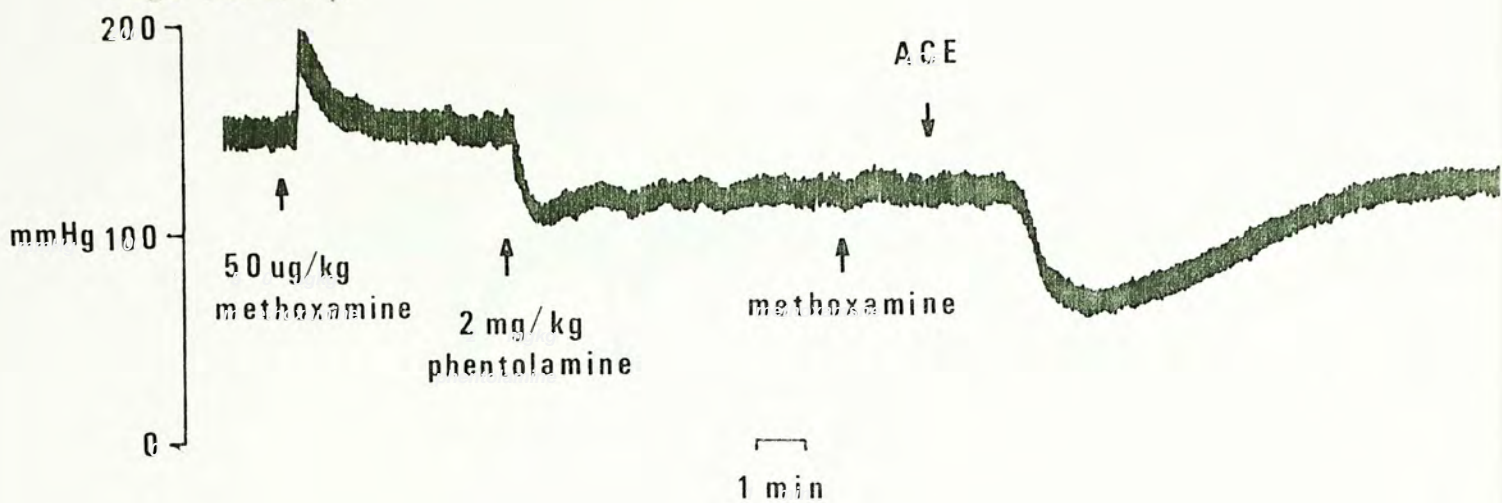


Fig. 3.2.4a,b

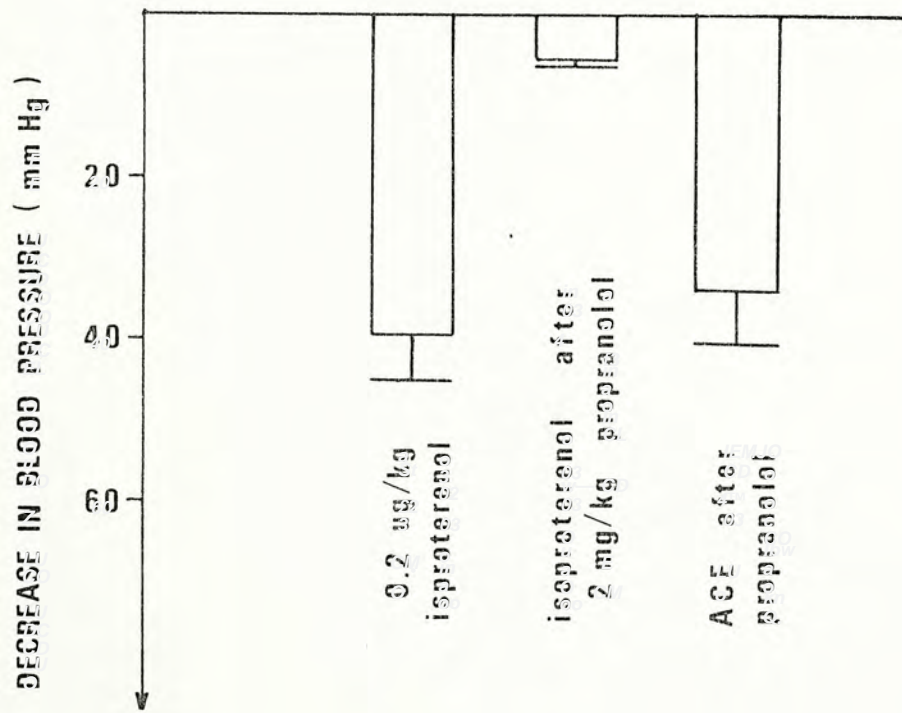
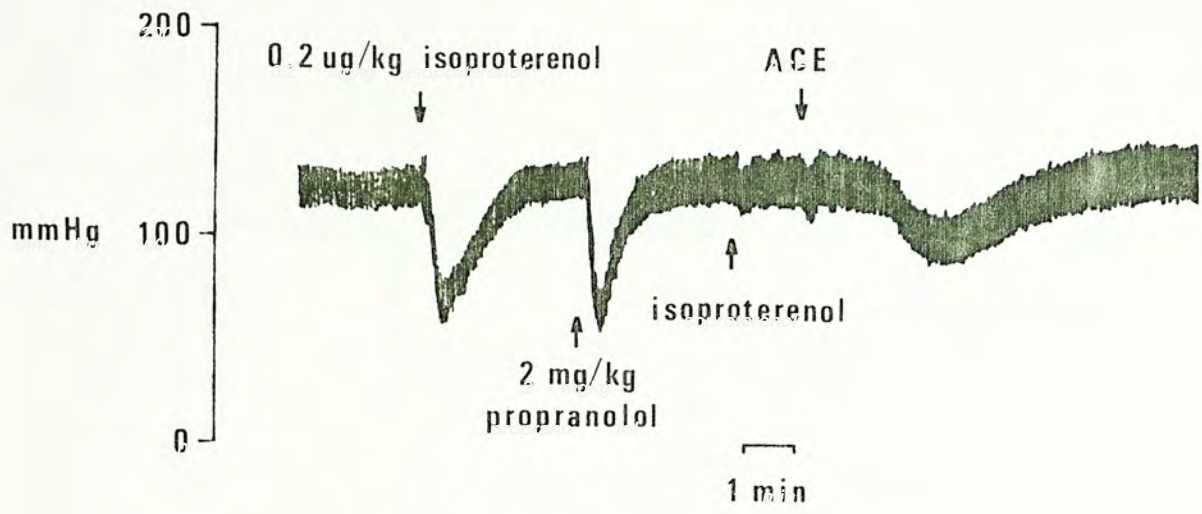


Fig. 3.2.5a, b

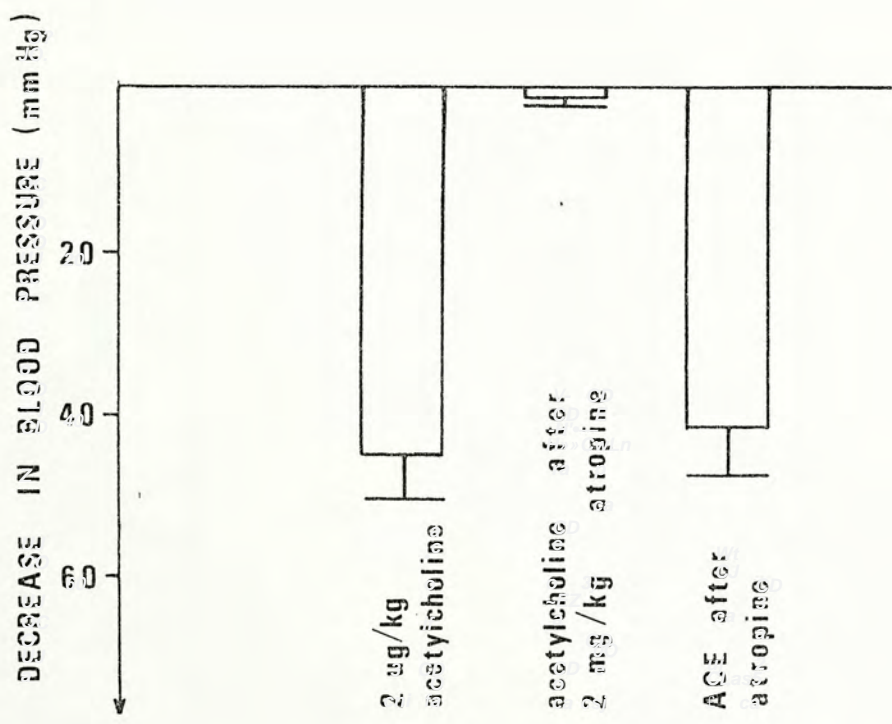
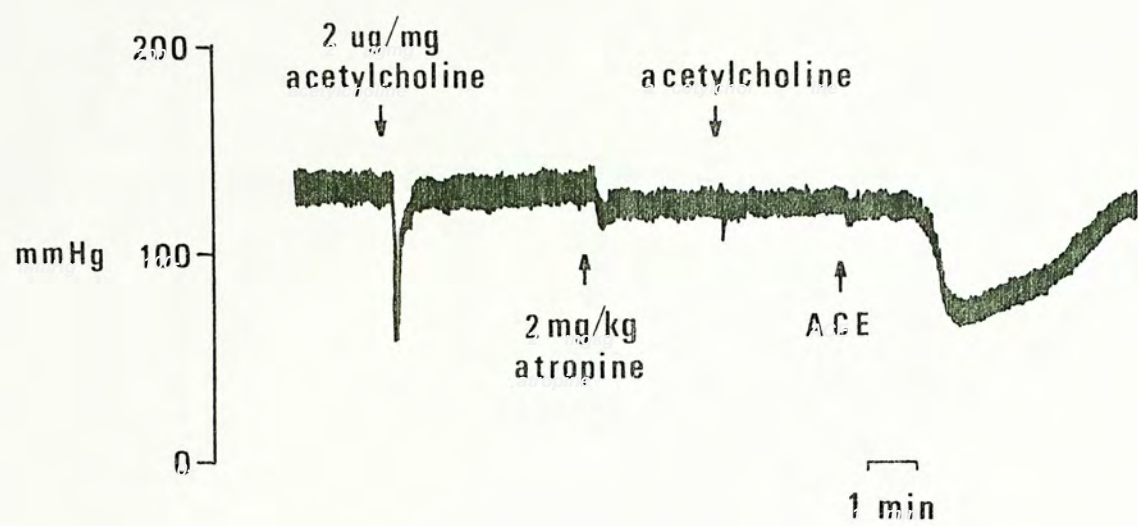


Fig. 3.2.6a, b

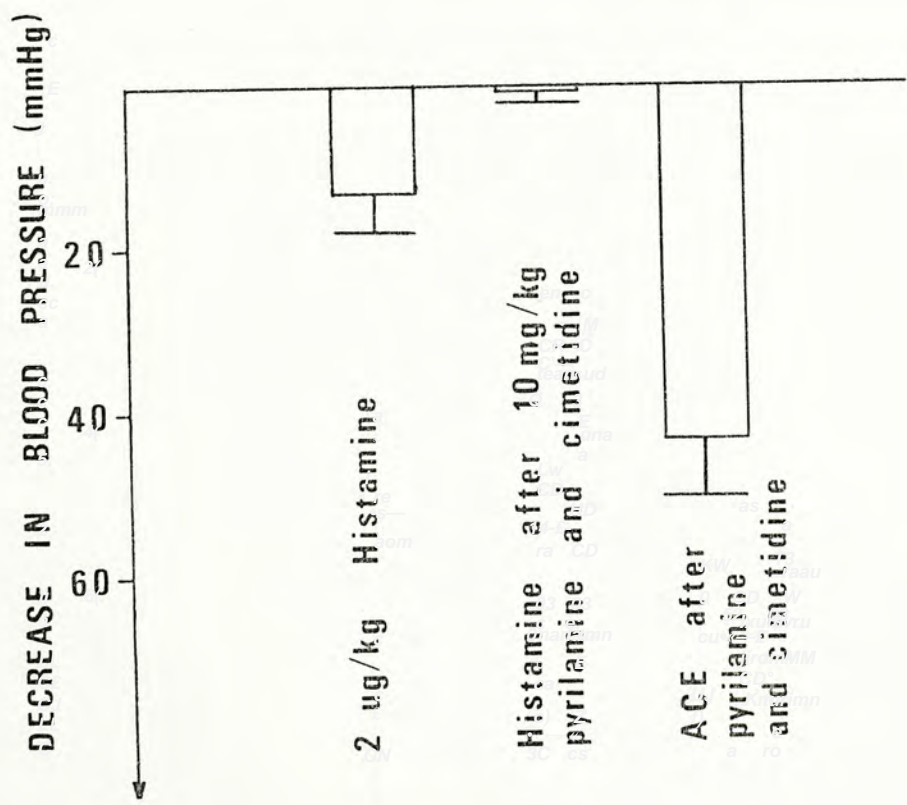
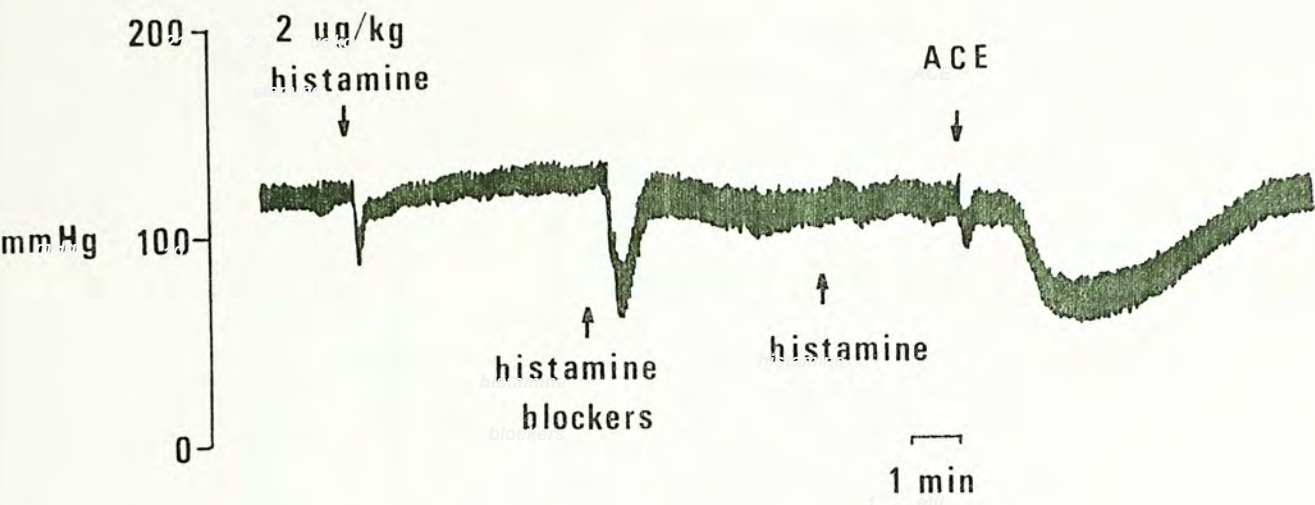


Fig. 3.2.71, b

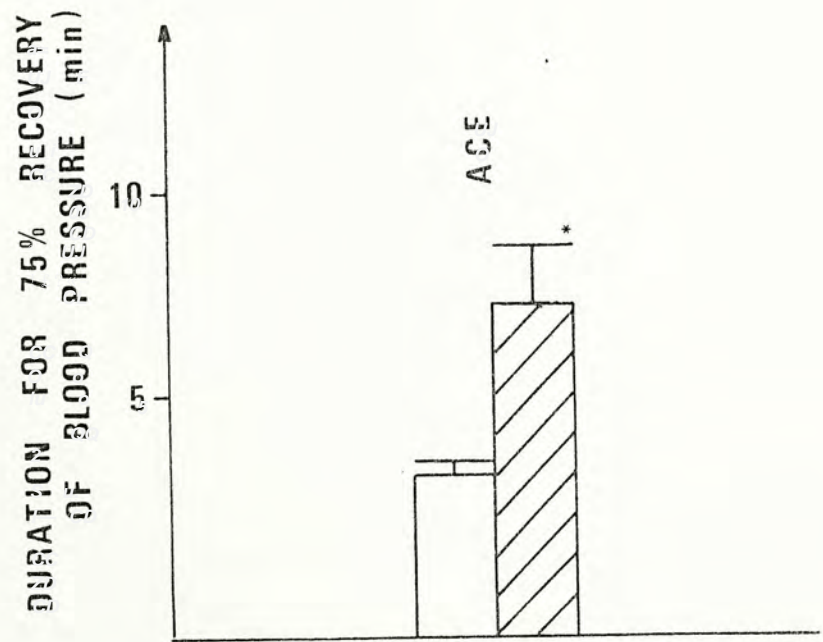
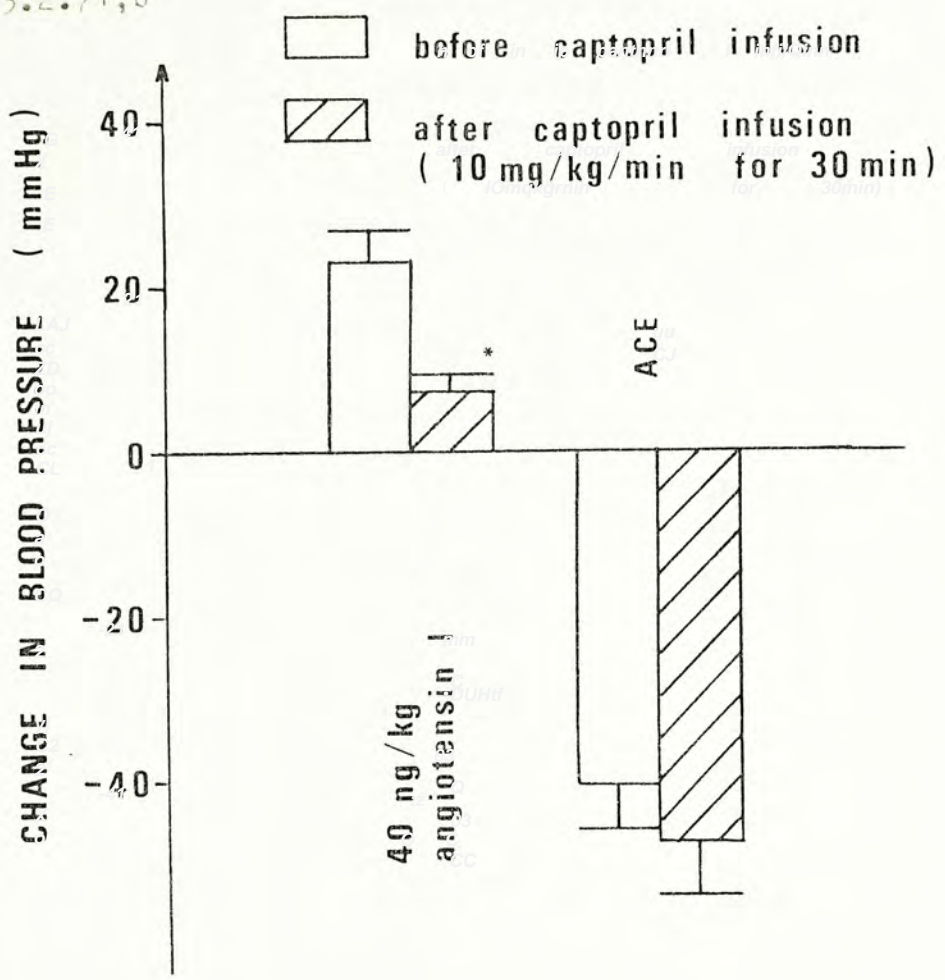


Fig. 3.2.8a,b

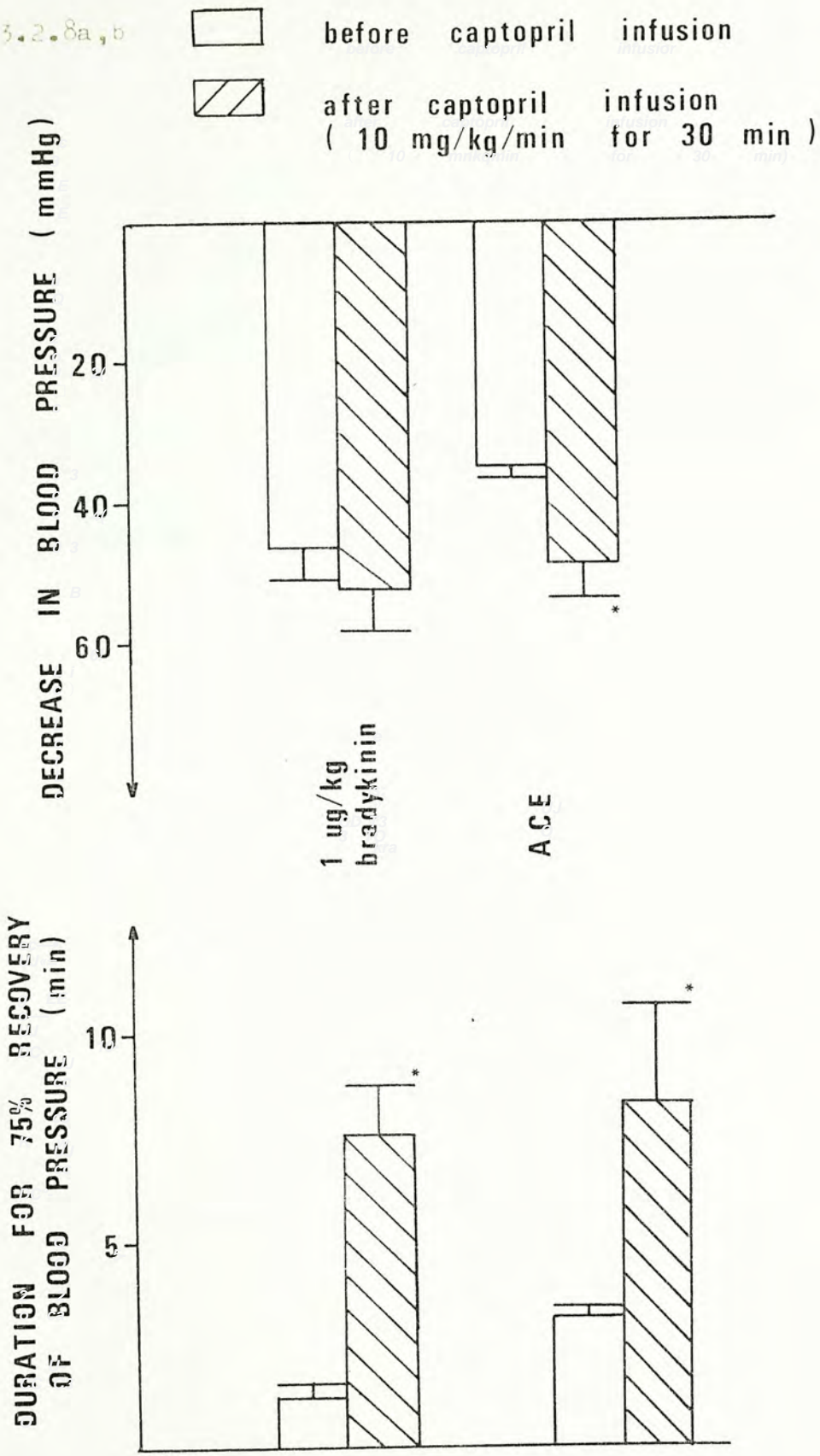


Fig. 3.2.9a,b

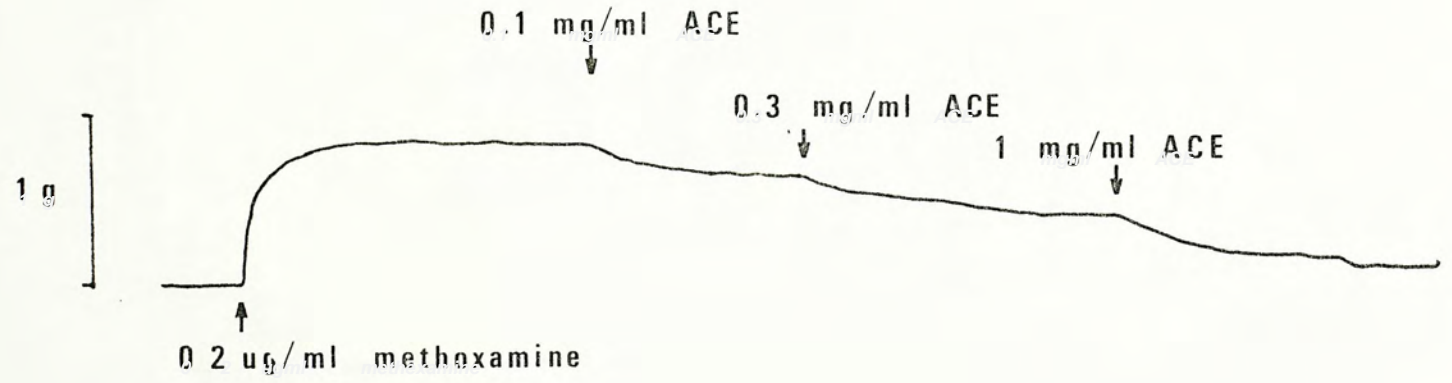
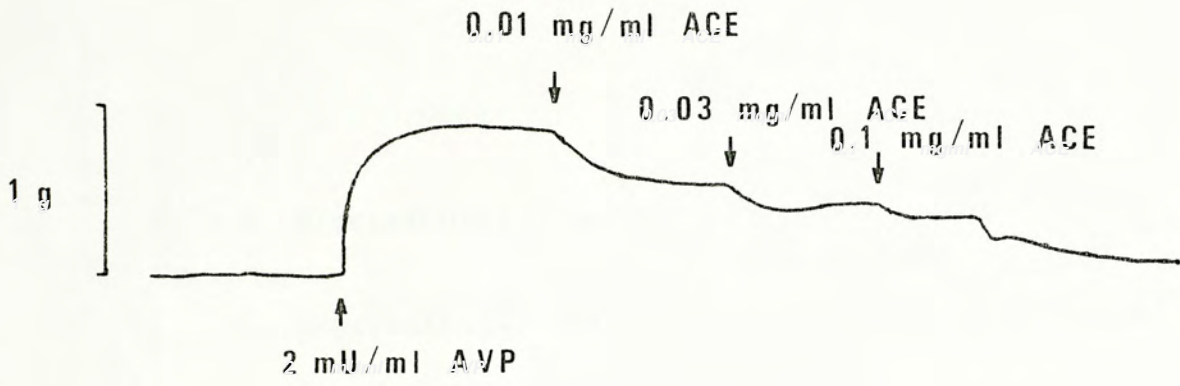


Fig. 3.2.10

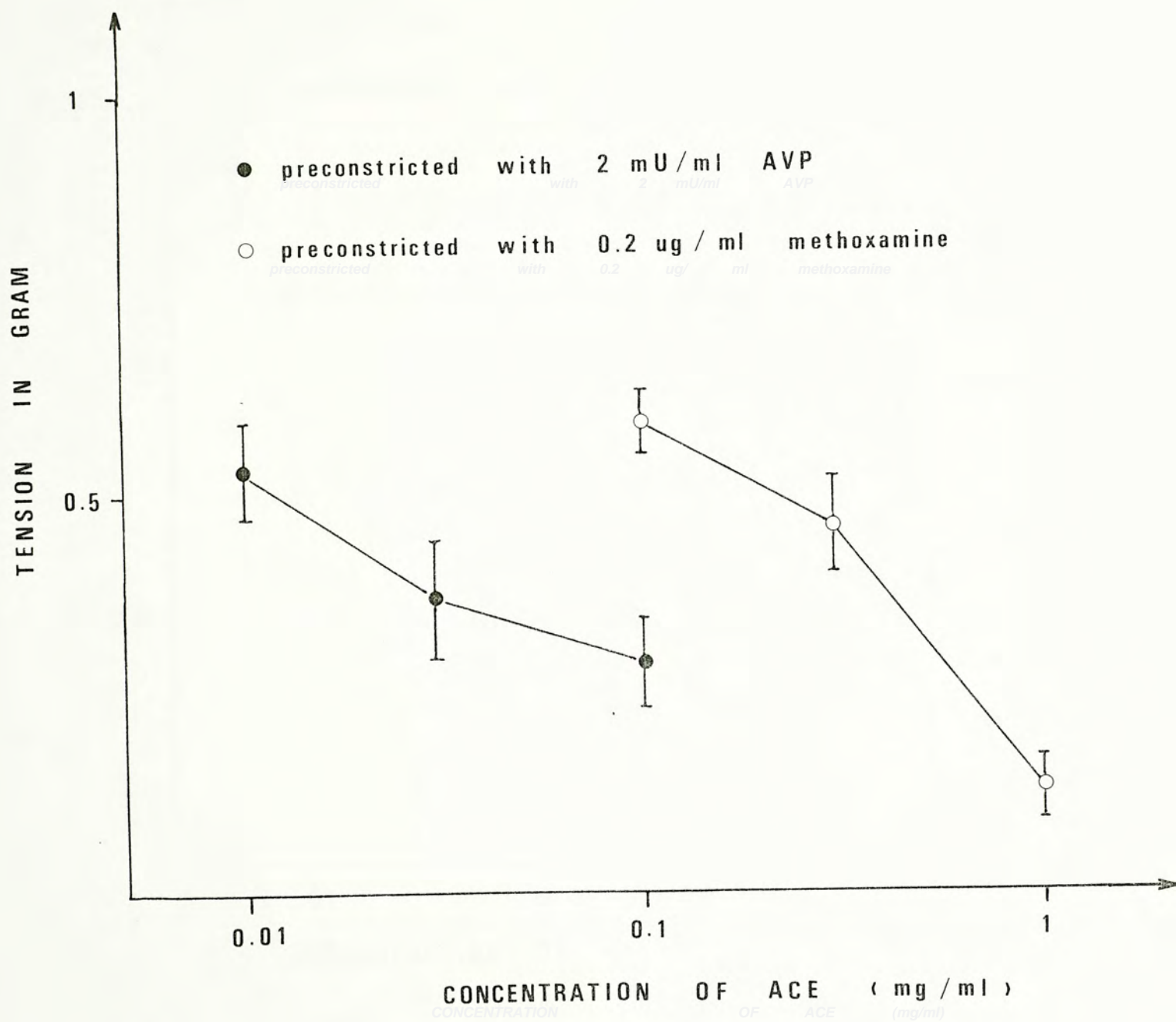
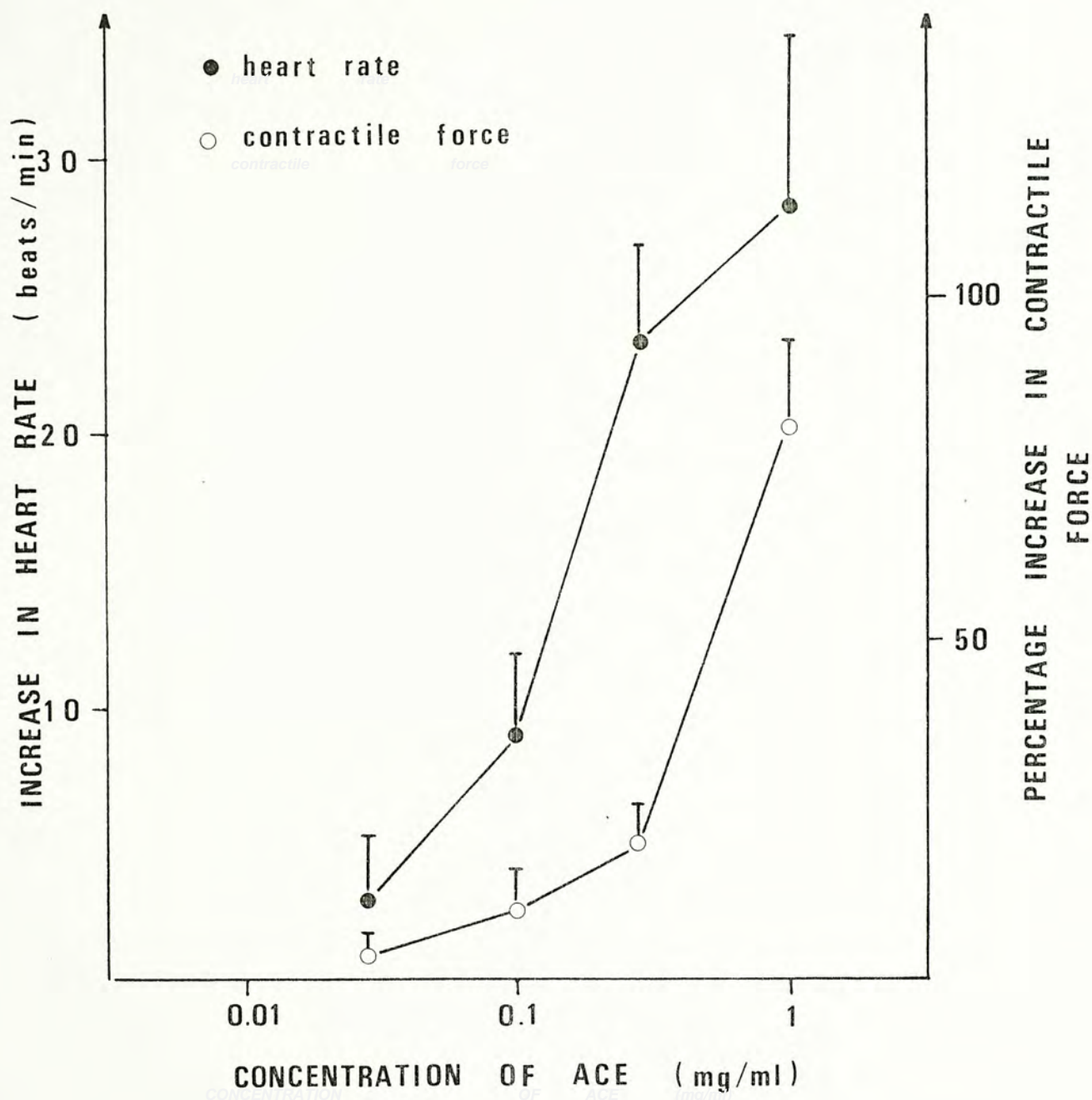


Fig. 3.2.11



SECTION THREE

PRELIMINARY STUDY ON THE CHEMICAL NATURE OF
THE HYPOTENSIVE SUBSTANCES
IN CLEMATIS CHINENSIS

The root of Clematis chinensis was chosen as the plant material for the present investigation. During the earlier study (section 1), the Clematis extract showed a very long lasting hypotensive effect, it, however, required a very high dosage to give the response ($ED_{50}=90.67$ mg/kg). Attempts were made to purify the plant material.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The dry plant material was extracted with various solvents : ethanol, methanol, acetone and/or hexane. After each extraction, the solvent was dried with vacuum rotary evaporator. The hypotensive activity of the extract was assayed with two anesthetized rats in each step to assess the presence of hypotensive activity. The rats were prepared as before and the dosage used for the assay was 40 mg/kg. The schemes for the purification were detailed in Fig. 3.31, 3.32 and 3.33.

Fig. 3.3.1 Preliminary purification of Clematis chinensis
(Scheme 1).

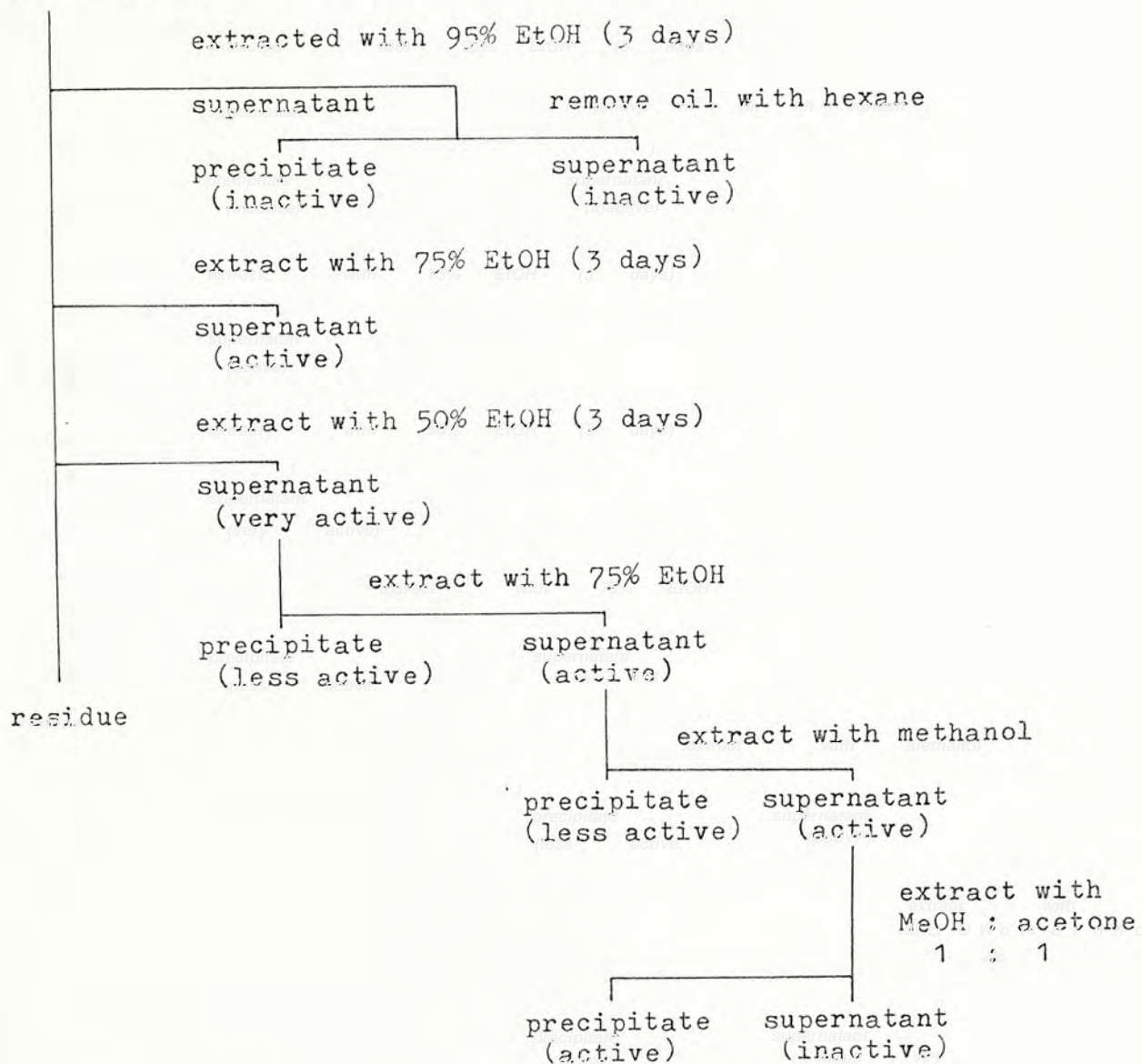
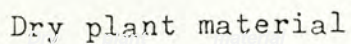


Fig. 3.3.2 Purification of Clematis chinensis (Scheme 2)

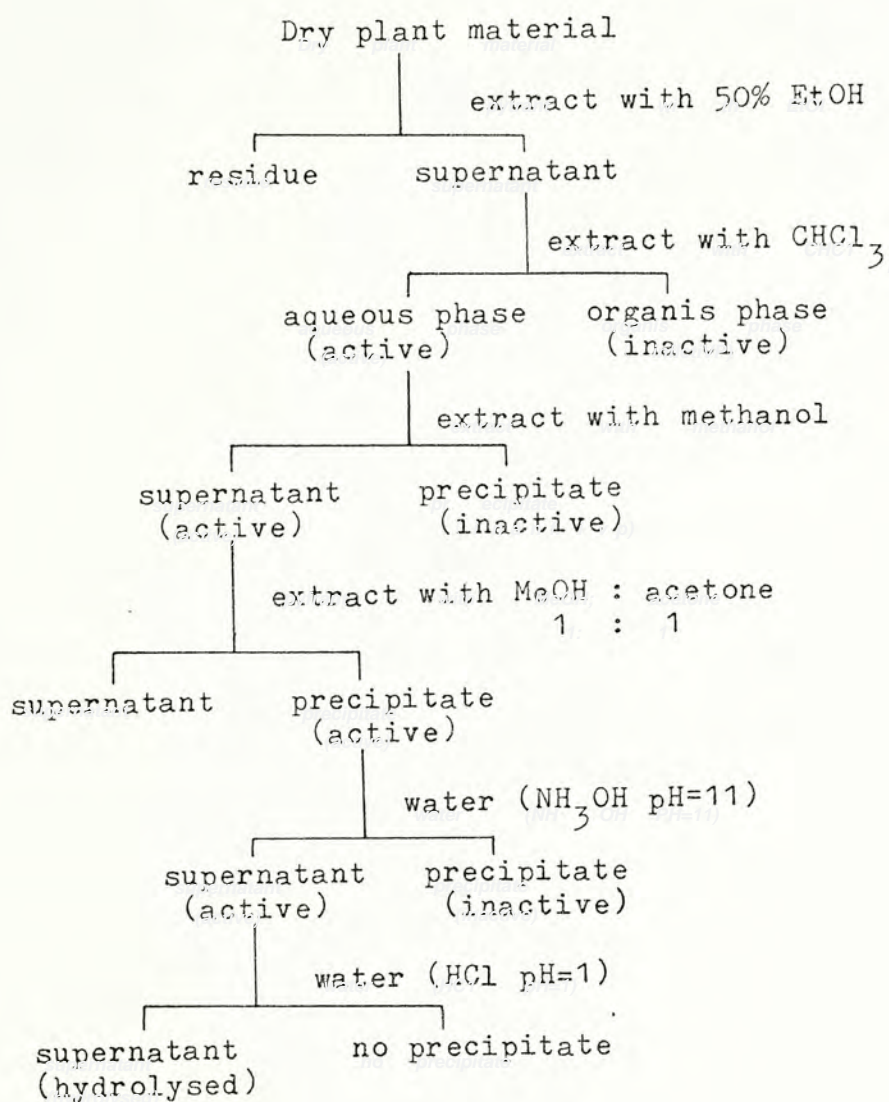
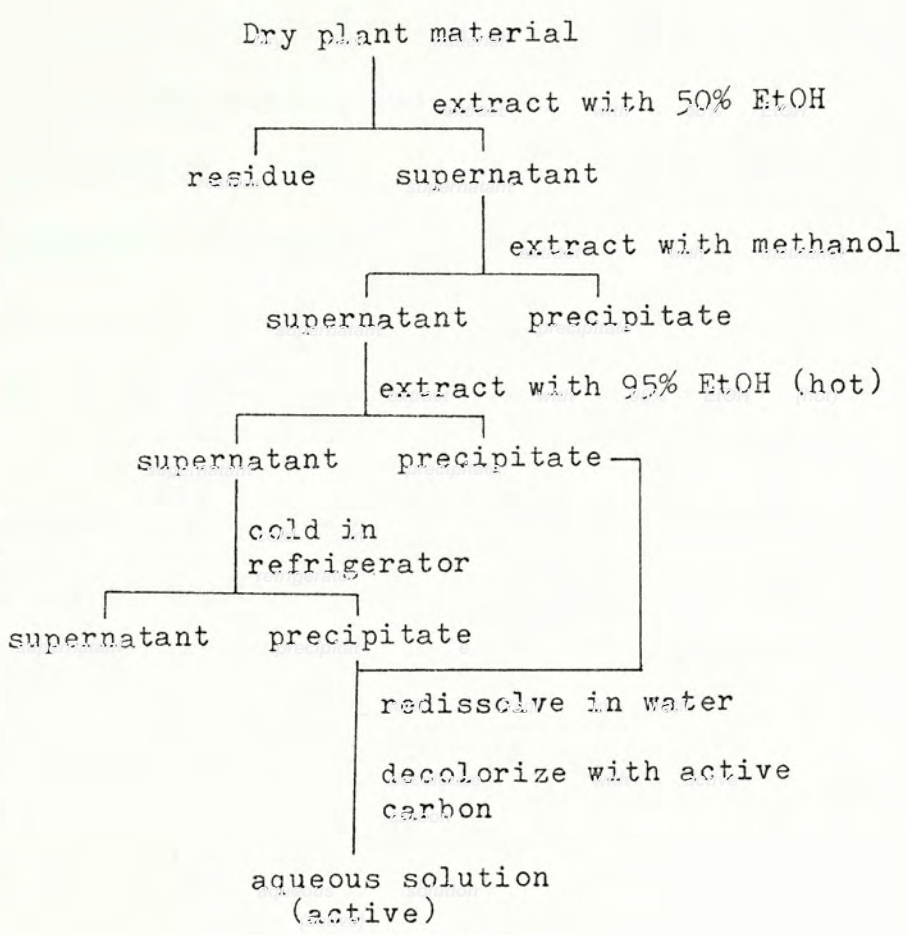


Fig. 3.3.3 Purification of Clematis chinensis (Scheme 3).



RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In scheme 1, the purifying procedures focused on the polarity of the active hypotensive principles. It was found that they were readily extracted from the dry plant material by 50% EtOH. Further extractions showed that the active hypotensive principles is soluble in methanol but not in the mixture of methanol and acetone (1 : 1). Thus, it is quite polar in nature.

In scheme 2, strong acid and alkaline were used to determine the acid/base nature of the active principles. It was found to be acid in nature, since strong base could not precipitate it out. However, when strong acid was tried, hydrolysis occurred. So it is unfeasible to use strong acid to purify the extract.

In scheme 3, active carbon was used to decolorize the semipurified extract. The hypotensive effect persisted after decolorization.

The relative hypotensive activity was indicated in parenthesis. Since only the relative activity was concerned, no absolute value of the depressor response was given. However, the purified material can produce a depressor response

at dose of 40 mg/kg, comparable to that of the Clematis water extract at their maximum dosage (500 mg/kg) - a 50% decrease in MAP and the response lasted for more than half an hour.

Some chemical compounds have been isolated from Clematis. They include protoanemonin, anemonin, saponins and triterpenic oligosides (clematoside A,A',B,C) (92,93). Protoanemonin, anemonin and saponins are quite non-polar in nature. Based on the present data, they are not likely to be the active principles. Since the Clematis extract was susceptible to acid hydrolysis, it is speculated that some glycosides, probably clematosides, present in the extract may be responsible for the hypotensive action.

REFERENCES

- 1) 四川医学院 (1982), 中草药学, 人民
卫生出版社
- 2) Kan, W. (1977). Pharmaceutical Botany. National
Research Institute of Chinese Medicine, Taiwan.
- 3) Gilman, A.G., L.S. Goodman and A. Gilman (1980). The
Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics. Macmillan
Publishing Co. Inc., New York.
- 4) 中国医学科学院药物研究所植化室 (1979),
我国三十年来中草药研究概况, 药
学
学报 14(2): 746-768
- 5) 朱大元 (1982), 近年来有生理活性的植物成分,
中草药 13(8): 377-382
- 6) 朱大元 (1982), 近年来有生理活性的植物成分,
中草药 13(9): 427-432
- 7) Petkov, V. (1979). Plants with hypotensive, antiatheromatous
and coronarodilatating action. Am. J. Chin. Med.
7(3): 197-236.
- 8) Levy, R.I. and J. Moskowitz (1982). Cardiovascular
research: Decades of progress, a decade of promise.
Science 217:121-129.
- 9) 江苏新医学院 (1979), 中药大辞典, 商务
印书馆, 香港. 1399 页.
- 10) 江苏新医学院 (1979), 中药大辞典, 商务
印书馆, 香港. 150, 236, 269, 954, 1399 页.

- 11) 江蘇新醫學院 (1979), 中藥大辭典, 商務印書館.
香港. 237-239 頁.
- 12) 中醫中藥學基礎編寫修訂組 (1981), 中醫中藥
基礎. 95-96 頁
- 13) Gottlieb, O.R. (1982). Ethnopharmacology versus
chemosystematics in the search for biologically
active principles in plants. J. Ethnopharmacol.
6:227-238.
- 14) Dahlgren, R.M.T. (1980). A revised system of classification
of the angiosperms. Bot. J. Linn. Soc. 80:91-124.
- 15) Cronquist, A. (1968). The evolution and Classification
of Flowering Plants. Nelson, London.
- 16) 中醫學編寫組 (1975), 中醫學, 河北人民出版社.
62-63 頁.
- 17) 蔣敏達, 趙光勝, 黃明智, 王崇行, 顧天華 (1978),
中醫中藥治療高血壓病, 上海科學技術出版
社. 209-259 頁
- 18) Chen, Q., M. Wang and L. Xu (1979). Experimental study
on the effect of Ling-Chin (Ganoderma) on coronary
circulation. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica 14 (3):
141-148.
- 19) 呂永俊, 葛衛紅, 熊英驊, 徐任生 (1982), 皮果衣
降壓成分的研究. 藥學通報 17 (5): 257-260

- 20) Cheung, S.C. and N.H. Li (1981). Chinese Medicinal Herbs of Hong Kong. Vol. 2. The Commercial Press, Hong Kong.
- 21) Chan, B.Y.F., K.K. Cheng and K.M. Li (1970). The mechanism of the hypotensive action of Tu Chung (Eucommia ulmoides Oliver). Far East Med. J. 6:259-262.
- 22) Hu, S. (1979). A contribution to our knowledge of Tu-chung - Eucommia ulmoides. Am. J. Chin. Med. 7(1):5-37.
- 23) Lozoya, X. (1980). Mexican medicinal plants used for treatment of cardiovascular diseases. Am. J. Chin. Med. 7(1):86-95.
- 24) Oliver-Bever, B. (1980). Medicinal plants in tropical west Africa. I. Plants acting on the cardiovascular system. J. Ethnopharmacol. 5:1-71.
- 25) Kato, M., H. Karasawa, N. Ezaki and S. Komatzu (1982). Pharmacological studies on Linderae Umbellatae Ramus. II. Effect of the crude extract on Linderae Umbellatae on central nervous system and cardiovascular system. Shoyakugaku Zasshi 36(2): 139-144.
- 26) 陈淑华, 胡宗家 (1981), 山豆根碱的降压作用及其降压机理的初步分析, 中草药, 12(10): 18

- 27) Chen, S. and C. Hu (1982). Action of dauricine on aorta strips. *Acta Pharmacologica Sinica* 3(3):178-182.
- 28) Singh, N., K.K. Kapur, S.P. Singh, K. Shanker, J.N. Sinha and R.P. Kohli (1982). Mechanism of cardiovascular action of Terminalia arjuna. *Planta Medica* 45: 102-104.
- 29) Su, Y., Q. Li and B. Zhang (1979). The effect of San Chi (76017) Panax notoginseng on cardiovascular system. *Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica* 14(6):321-325.
- 30) Zhang, Z., M. Wang, Z. Chen, J. Jiang and L. Zou (1980). Pharmacological effect of an extract of Panax notoginseng (Burk.) F.H. Chen on the heart. *Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica* 15(7):385-390.
- 31) Ferrigni, N.R., D.E. Nichols and J.L. McLaughlin (1982). Cactus alkaloids. XLVIII. N^a , N^a -Dimethylhistamine, a hypotensive component of Echinocereus triglochidiatus. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 5:359-364.
- 32) 彭仁琇, 楊德章, 葉青, 俞平, 劉惟堯, 鄧文瑾, 肖德芳 (1981). 當歸對心血管系統的藥理作用. *中草藥* 12(7): 321-324
- 33) 徐理納, 蘇士琮, 尹鍾珠, 張凌雲, 計嵐仙 (1980) 當歸對麻醉犬外周血管的擴張作用. *中華醫學雜誌* 60(2): 80-82

- 34) Chou, Y., L. Huang, Y. Cheng, L. Fan, L. Chang and K. Tseng
(1979). The effect of Angelica sinensis on
haemodynamics and myocardiac oxygen consumption
in dog. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica 14(3):156-160.
- 35) Farnsworth, N.R. (1972). The phytochemistry and biological
activity of Catharanthus lanceus (Apocynaceae).
In: Plants in the Development of Modern Medicine.
T. Swain eds. Harvard University Press, Cambridge,
Massachusetts. 279-302.
- 36) Morton, J.F. (1977). Major Medicinal Plants. Botany,
Culture and Uses. Charles C. Thomas Publisher,
Springfield, Illinois.
- 37) Pandey, V.B., J.P. Singh, Y.V. Rao and S.B. Acharya (1982).
Isolation and pharmacological action of Heliotrine
indicum seeds. Planta Medica 45:229-233.
- 38) Cheung, S.C. and N.H. Li (1980). Chinese Medicinal Herbs
of Hong Kong. Vol. 1. The Commercial Press,
Hong Kong.
- 39) 任世蘭, 于龍順, 裴寧, 趙國舉 (1982). 寬葉續
草對平滑肌和心血管的藥理研究.
中草藥 13(3): 119-122
- 40) 李世英, 時德, 吳凱南, 羅億治, 朱治本, 劉文清
(1979). 紅花對周圍血管作用的初步
研究. 中華醫學雜誌 59(9): 550-553

- 41) Gomita, Y., M. Moriyama, Y. Ichimaru, A. Uchikado, T. Nohara and T. Kawaski (1982). Cardiovascular effects of pennogenin tetraglycoside (Tg) extracted from Paris quadrifolia Linn. Yakugaku Zasshi 102(5):495-498.
- 42) 林啟壽 (1977) 中草藥成分化學 科學出版社.
- 43) Muller, J.M., E. Schlitter and H.J. Bein (1952). Reserpin, der sedative wirkstoff aus Rauwolfia serpentina Benth. Experientia 8:338.
- 44) Wooden, R.E., H.W. Youngken, E. Schlitter and J.A. Schneider (1957). Rauwolfia, Botany, Pharmacognosy, Chemistry and Pharmacology. Litter Brown, Boston.
- 45) Patel, M.B., J. Poisson, J.L. Pousset and J.M. Rowson (1964). Alkaloids of the leaves of Rauwolfia vomitoria Afz. J. Pharm. Pharmacol. 16:163T-165T.
- 46) 陸新謙 (1981) 新編藥物學 人民衛生出版社
404 頁
- 47) Shellard, E.J. and M.Z. Alam (1968). The quantitative determination of some Mitragyna oxy-indole alkaloids by U.V. spectrophotometry. Planta Medica 16:127-136.
- 48) Gellert, E., R. Raymond-Hamet and E. Schlitter (1951). Die Konstitution des alkaloids cryptolepin. Helvetica Chimica Acta 34:642-651.

- 49) Robinsin, B. and S. Spitteler (1964). Structure of Eseramine. Chemistry and industry, London.
- 50) Wan, T.L., J.L. Beal, W.N. Wu and R.W. Doskotch (1978). Alkaloids of *Thalictrum* XXVII. New hypotensive benzyloisoquinoline-derived dimeric alkaloids from *Thalictrum minus*. Lloydia 41:271-276.
- 51) Bevan, C.W.L. and A.U. Ogun (1964). Biogenesis of carpaine in *Carica papaya*. Phytochemistry 3:591-594.
- 52) Zheng, F., D. Fang, D. Leng and F. Lu (1982). Influence of tetrandrine on the left ventricular function and peripheral blood vessels in canines. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica 17(8):561-565.
- 53) 王宗朝, 曹勇 (1981). 全麻期间应用环磷亭进行控制性降血压. 中草药 12(3): 20-47
- 54) Wong, B., M. Yang, L. Pang and Z. Yu (1979). Action of tetramethylpyrazine on cardiovascular system in the anesthetized dog. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica 14(10): 264-267.
- 55) Zhou, Z., C. Han and P. Wang (1980). A study on the hypotensive action and mechanism of berbamine hydrochloride. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica 15(4): 248-250.

- 56) 曾貴雲. 張麗英. 周遠鵬. 范禮理 (1979). 葛根的
藥理研究. 中華醫學雜誌 59(8): 479-481
- 57) Sun, F., J. Su and H. Zheng (1981). Studies on the
pharmacological activities and toxicity of armillarisin
A, a new choleretic drug. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica
15(6):401-406.
- 58) Weiner, N. (1980). Drugs that inhibit adrenergic nerve
and block adrenergic receptors. In: The Pharmacological
Basis of Therapeutics. A.G. Gilman et al eds.
Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., New York. 176-210.
- 59) Cauvin, C.A., C.J. Devia and P.L. Kirkendol (1981).
Effect of reserpine pretreatment on in vivo femoral
arterial responses to vasodilator agent. J. Pharmacol.
Exp. Ther. 216:447-452.
- 60) Contantin, J.W., R.A. Weeks and W.K. McShane (1978).
Prozosin and presynaptic α -receptors in the cardio-
vascular nerves of dog. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 50:51-60.
- 61) Rand, M.J., C. Yang, H.M. Cole-Goodwin, M.W. McCulloch
and D.F. Story (1982). The operation of autoregulatory
feedback loops in noradrenergic transmission to
cardiovascular effect or tissue. J. Cardiovas.
Pharmacol. 4:S41-S45.

- 62) Chen, Y., D. Fang and F. Lu (1982). Effects of tetrandrine on the inotropic and toxic action of cardiac glycosides and its relation to extracellular calcium. *Acta Pharmacologica Sinica* 3(3):175-178.
- 63) 姚兆偉, 方達超, 夏國瑾, 曲玲, 江明性 (1981) 漢防己甲素對豚鼠心房的作用, 武漢醫學院學報 3:81-83
- 64) 江蘇新醫學院 (1979). 中藥大辭典. 商務印書館. 香港. 1398-1402 頁.
- 65) 江蘇新醫學院 (1979). 中藥大辭典. 商務印書館. 香港. 1933-1935 頁.
- 66) 江蘇新醫學院 (1979). 中藥大辭典. 商務印書館. 香港. 1632-1753 頁.
- 67) 江蘇新醫學院 (1979). 中藥大辭典. 商務印書館. 香港. 1752-1753 頁.
- 68) Hoar, W.S. and C.P. Hickman Jr. (1967). A Laboratory Companion for General and Comparative Physiology. Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- 69) Guyton, A.C. (1976). Textbook of Medical Physiology. Igaku Shoin Ltd., Tokyo.
- 70) Keatinge, W.R. and M.C. Harman (1980). Local Mechanism Controlling Blood Vessels. Academic Press Inc., London. 65-72.

- 71) Haddy, E.J. (1977). The mechanism of potassium vasodilation.
In: Mechanism of vasodilatation. Satellite Symposium,
27 th International Congress of Physiological Sciences.
P.M. Vanhoutte and I.L. Gent eds., Karger, Basel.
200-205.
- 72) Pang, P.K.T., T.E. Tenner Jr., J.A. Yee, Y. Yang and
H.F. Jansen (1980). Hypotensive action of parathyroid
hormone preparations on rats and dogs. Proc.Nat. Acad.
Sci. 77(1):675-678.
- 73) Cushman, D.W., H.S. Cheung, E.F. Sabo and M.A. Onetti (1977).
Design of potent competitive inhibitors of angiotensin-
converting enzyme. Carboxyalkanoyl and mercaptoalkanoyl
amino acid. Biochem. 16:5484-5491.
- 74) Geritsen, M.E., R. Mathison and Lederis (1977). Urotensin I
induce relaxation and intracellular cAMP content in
rat tail artery. Proc.West. Pharmacol. Soc. 20:133-137.
- 75) Pataty, V., and M.E. Todd (1978). Some effects of the
ionophore X-537A on the isolated rat tail artery.
Can. J. Physiol. Pharmacol. 56:474-482.
- 76) Tenner, T.E. and P.K.T. Pang (1982). Cardiac actions of
parathyroid hormone. Proc. West. Pharmacol. Soc.
25:263-267.
- 77) Flemming, W.W., D.P. Westfall, I.S. de la Lande and L.B.
Jellett (1972). Log-normal distribution of equi-
effective doses of norepinephrine and acetylcholine
in several tissue. J. Pharmacol Exp. Ther. 181:339-345.

- 78) Douglas, W.W. (1980). Histamine and 5-hydroxytryptamine and their antagonists. In: The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics. A.G. Gilman et al. eds. Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., New York. 609-646.
- 79) Owen, D.A.A. (1977). Histamine receptors in the cardiovascular system. Gen. Pharmacol. 8:141-156.
- 80) Powell, J.R. and M.J. Brady (1975). Identification and specific blockade of two receptors for histamine in the cardiovascular system. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 196:305-310.
- 81) Yang, M.C.M., T.E. Tenner Jr. and P.K.T. Pang (1981). Lack of histamine involvement in parathyroid hormone hypotensive action. Pharmacol 22:305-310.
- 82) Taylor, P. (1980). Ganglion stimulating and blockage agents. In: The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics. A.G. Gilman eds. Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., New York. 211-219.
- 83) Saeed, M., O. Sommer, J. Holtz and E. Bassenge (1982). α -adrenoceptor blockade by phentolamine causes β -adrenergic vasodilation by increased catecholamine release due to presynaptic α -blockade. J. Cardiovas. Pharmacol. 4:44-52.

- 84) Vollmer, R.R., J.A. Boccagno, T.E. Steinbacher, Z.P. Horovitz and V.S. Murthy (1981). Antihypertensive activity and captopril (14,225), an orally active inhibitor of angiotensin converting enzyme in conscious two-kidney perinephritic hypertensive dogs. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* 216:225-231.
- 85) Wallace, K.B., M.D. Baillie and J.B. Hook (1978). Angiotensin-converting enzyme in developing lung and kidney. *Am. J. Physiol.* 234(3):R141-145.
- 86) Erdos, E.G. (1977). The angiotensin I converting enzyme. *Fed. Proc.* 36:1760-1765.
- 87) Douglas, W.W. (1980). Polypeptides - angiotensin, plasma kinins and others. In: *The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics*. A.G. Gilman et al eds. Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., New York. 647-667.
- 88) Dos Santos, E., H.A. Rothschild and M. Rocha e Silva (1979). Studies on the activation of the Pre-kininogenin-kininogenin (Pre-kallikrein-kallikrein) system by sulfated polysaccharides and Koalin. In: *Current Concepts in Kinin Research*. G.L. Haberland and U. Hambrg eds. Pergamon Press, Oxford. 145-150.
- 89) Margolis, J. (1963). The inter-relationship of coagulation of plasma and release of peptides. In: *Structure and Function of Biologically Active Peptides: Bradykinin, Kallidin and Congeners*. E.G. Erdos eds. The New York Academy of Sciences, New York. 133-145.

- 90) Diniz, R.C. and F. Carvalho (1963). A micromethod for determination of bradykininogen under several conditions. In: Structure and Function of Biologically Active Peptides: Bradykinin, Kallidin and Congeners. E. G. Erdos eds. The New York Academy of Sciences, New York. 77-89.
- 91) Guth, P.S., G. Lano and J. Jaramillo (1963). The effect of bradykinin on vascular smooth muscle. In: Structure and Function of Biologically Active Peptides: Bradykinin, Kallidin and Congeners. E.G. Erdos eds. The New York Academy of Sciences, New York. 67-76.
- 92) Li, J., P. Xiao and Z. Lou (1980). Botanical and Pharmacognostical studies of the Chinese Drug Wei-Ling-Xian. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica 15(5):288-297.
- 93) Kochetkov, N.K., A.J. Khorlin and V.J. Chirva (1965). Clematoside C - triterpenic oligoside from Clematis manshurica. Tetrahedron Letters 26:2201-2205.

—

<u>Abies sutchuerensis</u>	松子
<u>Acacia catechu</u>	刺桐
<u>Achillea millefolium</u>	西洋艾
<u>Achyranthes aspera</u>	倒生草
<u>Achyranthes bidentata</u>	牛膝
<u>Aconitum carmichaeli</u>	烏頭
<u>Acorus calamus</u>	白菖蒲
<u>Ajuga lupulina</u>	白忽濟
<u>Alisma plantago</u>	澤瀉
<u>Allium sativum</u>	大蒜
<u>Alstonia yunnanensis</u>	大紅樹
<u>Anacardium occidentale</u>	紅都子
<u>Anaphalis nepalensis</u>	打穿草
<u>Andrographis paniculata</u>	穿心蓮
<u>Anethum graveoleus</u>	時蘿
<u>Angelica sinensis</u>	當歸
<u>Anisomeles indica</u>	防風
<u>Apium graveolens</u>	旱芹
<u>Apocynum venetum</u>	羅布
<u>Arachis hypogaea</u>	落花生
<u>Aralia elata</u>	刺楸
<u>Ardisia japonica</u>	老鴉
<u>Aristolochia contorta</u>	紫金牛
<u>Artemisia capillaris</u>	馬兜鈴
<u>Arundo donax</u>	蘆葦
<u>Asarum heterotropoides</u>	細辛
<u>Asparagus officinalis</u>	小黃竹
<u>Astragalus membranaceus</u>	黃耆
<u>Berberis amurensis</u>	小檗
<u>Berberis heteropoda</u>	黑果
<u>Berberis sargentiana</u>	三顆
<u>Bidens tripartita</u>	狼把
<u>Biota orientalis</u>	側柏
<u>Blumea balsamifera</u>	艾納香
<u>Blumea densiflora</u>	大黑
<u>Caesalpinia crista</u>	刺楸
<u>Calendula arvensis</u>	金盞花
<u>Calendula officinalis</u>	金盞花
<u>Cannabis sativa</u>	大麻
<u>Capesium abrotanoides</u>	火麻
<u>Capsella bursa</u>	蔞子
<u>Caragana sinica</u>	金雀
<u>Caediospermum halicacabum</u>	假蘇木
<u>Carduus crispus</u>	飛廉
<u>Carthamus tinctorius</u>	紅花
<u>Cassia occidentalis</u>	望江南
<u>Cassia tora</u>	決明子
<u>Catharanthus roseus</u>	夾竹桃
<u>Celastrus orbiculatus</u>	蛇葡萄
<u>Celosia argentea</u>	青葙

<u>Glechoma longituba</u>	金錢草
<u>Gnaphalium hypoleueum</u>	天蟻草
<u>Gnaphalium uliginosum</u>	濕鼠曲草
<u>Helictenes angustifolia</u>	山芝麻
<u>Helianthus annuus</u>	向日葵
<u>Heliotropium indicum</u>	大尾搖
<u>Hibiscus rosa</u>	扶桑花
<u>Holarrhena antidysenterica</u>	止瀉木
<u>Ilex pubescens</u>	毛冬青
<u>Imperata cylindrica</u>	白茅根
<u>Ipomoea digitata</u>	藤商陸
<u>Ixeris chinensis</u>	山苦蕒
<u>Ixora chinensis</u>	龍船花
<u>Juglans regia</u>	胡桃
<u>Laminaria japonica</u>	昆布
<u>Lantana camara</u>	五加皮
<u>Lobelia chinensis</u>	半邊蓮
<u>Leontice robustum</u>	紅毛七
<u>Leonurus heterophyllus</u>	益母草
<u>Lingustrum japonicum</u>	苦茶
<u>Ligusticum wallichii</u>	山藥
<u>Linaria vulgaris</u>	柳穿魚
<u>Lithocarpus polystachyus</u>	多穗石柯
<u>Luffa cylindrica</u>	絲瓜
<u>Luisia morsei</u>	釵子股
<u>Lycoris radiata</u>	石蒜
<u>Lycum chinense</u>	地骨皮
<u>Lysimachia barystachys</u>	狼尾花
<u>Lysimachia insignis</u>	三葉張口
<u>Lysimachia hattiana</u>	黃連
<u>Lysimachia vulgaris</u>	黃連
<u>Maesa indica</u>	兩面青
<u>Magnolia liliflora</u>	木蘭
<u>Mahonia bealei</u>	十大功
<u>Malachium aquaticum</u>	鵝腸草
<u>Malus pumila</u>	蘋果
<u>Menispermum dauricum</u>	洋扁
<u>Menvanthes trifoliata</u>	睡菜
<u>Mesona chinensis</u>	涼粉
<u>Morus alba</u>	桑根
<u>Musa basjoo</u>	芭蕉根
<u>Nelumbo nucifera</u>	蓮子
<u>Nitraria sibirica</u>	達子
<u>Nymphaea tetragona</u>	卡密蓮
<u>Oenanthe benghalensis</u>	水芹
<u>Oenanthe javanica</u>	水芹
<u>Paeonia lactiflora</u>	芍藥
<u>Paederia scandens</u>	赤藤
<u>Paeonia suffruticosa</u>	牡丹
<u>Panax ginseng</u>	人參

Panax pseudo-ginseng
Panicum repens
Peganum harmala
Phellodendron amurense
Phyllanthus emblica
Piper longum
Piptanthus concolor
Pittosporum glabratum
Plantago asiatica
Plumbago indica
Polygonum aviculare
Polygonum chinense
Polygonum hydropiper
Polygonatum sibiricum
Polygonatum verticillatum
Prunella vulgaris
Prunus persica
Pueraria lobata
Pyrus pashia
Pyrola rotundifolia
Ranunculus chinensis
Rauwolfia verticillata
Rehmannia glutinosa
Rhaponticum uniflorum
Rhododendron micranthum
Rhododendron molle
Rosmarinus officinalis
Salix babylonica
Salsola collina
Salsola ruthenica
Salvia miltiorrhiza
Sapindus mukorossi
Sargassum fusiforme
Sausaurea lappa
Scopolia acutangula
Scrophularia ningpoensis
Scutellaria baicalensis
Sedum kantschaticum
Sedum multicaule
Siegesbeckia orientalis
Sinomenium acutum
Solanum nigrum
Sophora japonica
Stephania cepharantha
Stephania japonica
Stellaria saxatilis
Stephania tetrandra
Sterculia scaphigera
Stereocaulon paschale
Swertia heterantha
Symplocos caudata

三七
鋪地泰根
駱駝蓬子
黃柏根
油柏根
黃花根
山車枝根
紫葳花
高火草
水黃精
羊角參
夏枯草
桃仁
葛根
山星紅
鹿街葉
回回木
夢笑木
干地黃
漏芦
昭山白
六軸子
迷迭香
柳葉菜
猪毛蓬
刺沙參
丹參子
魚鱗皮
海藻
木香
三三參
玄參
黃芩
佛手
佛手
青風藤
古銅菜
槐花子
白千金藤
地精草
防己
胖大海
石莖
烏金草
山藥

Syzygium aromaticum
Tacca plantaginea
Tecomaria capensis
Thalictrum foliolosum
Thermopsis alpina
Trachycarpus wagnerianus
Tribulus terrestris
Trillium tschonoskio
Typha angustata
Uncaria macrophylla
Uncaria rhynchophylla
Urtica cannabina
Usnea longissima
Valeriana officinalis
Veratrum nigrum
Verbascum thapsus
Veronica anagallis-aquatica
Vicia faba
Vinca minor
Viscum angulatum
Viscum articulatum
Viscum coloratum
Wedelia prostrata
Xanthium sibiricum
Zanthoxylum hungeanum
Zea mays
Ziziphus jujuba

丁香
 水田七
 竹林標
 馬尾蓮
 高山黃華根
 棕櫚花
 刺蒺藜
 芋兒七
 蒲黃
 大葉鉤藤
 鉤藤
 麻根
 松蘿
 蘇合
 藜蘆
 毛蕊花
 水苦蕒
 蚕豆花
 藤長春
 檉枝柳
 楓香
 桑寄生
 地黃
 蒼耳根
 花椒
 玉米鬚
 酸棗根

CORRIGENDUM

Page no.	Line no.	In text	should read
content	7	Medicinal	Medicine
2	2	vaspressin	vasopressin
3a	11	plant	plants
5	11		generations orally and
5	20	studied	studies
6	10	<u>areca</u>	<u>Areca</u>
6	21	<u>Digitalis purpurea</u>	<u>Digitalis purpurea</u>
7	3	informations	information
7	7		now be shown
10	5	focus	foci
10	16	informations	information
11	1	womwn's	women's
11	3	gynecology	gynaecology
11	16	knoen	known
11	20	family	families
11	24	taxononmy	taxonomy
11	24	Howver	However
12	last	combination	combinations
13	7	invigorate	invigorating
13	7	promote	promoting
13	12	ternata	<u>ternata</u>
13	19	Ther	There
14	4	componds	compounds
15	2	ahows	shows
15	7	neglect	neglects
15	19	stopping	stopping
15	21	bowls	bowels
15	22	bland flavored	bland-flavored
16	13	detoxication	detoxification
17	10	chinese	Chinese
40	3	distinguish	distinguish
40	4	with	from
40	7	goal	goals
40	13	contains	contain
41	22	adenin	adenine
41	24	floribunda	<u>floribunda</u>
42	10		reported to contain
42	15	has	have
43	14		was isolated
43	15	for	to
43	21	are	is
44	9	flavanoid	flavonoid
45	7	hypotension	hypotensive
45	8	flavanoid	flavonoid
45	19	is	are
62	10	electric	electrical
62	13	neurone	neurons
62	14	adreoceptors	adrenoceptors
66	19	injection	injections

68	9.	outlines	outlined
70	2nd last	P 0.05	P<0.05
72	5	temporary	temporarily
73	5	adjuded	adjudged
75	6	vasodilatation	vasodilatation
75	13	occur	occurs
75	19	amount	among
77	3	dosage	dosages
77	last	dosage	dosages
90	2	choosen	chosen
96	4	cummulative	cumulative
97	7	t-test	t-tests
98	8		[Mean (95% confidence interval
98	12	39.3	39.3±1.2
100	2nd last	antagonist	antagonists
103	5		are about the same
103	16	immulogical	immunological
104	11	extend	extent
104	15	arteriole	arterioles
105	2nd last	bradykininwere	bradykinin were
106	4	do	does
106	6	sngiotensin	angiotensin
106	9	does	is
106	9		likely to produce
106	11,13,14		α-adrenergic
106	16	suggest	suggests
106	22	negative	negatively
107	15	vasoconstriction	vasoconstriction
108	8	componds	compounds
126	5	assay	assayed
128	6	organis	organic
128	14	NH ₃ OH	NH ₄ OH
129	9	cold	cool
130	1	DISCUSSIONS	DISCUSSION
130	12	precipite	precipitate
131	1		at a dose
131	7	olgosides	oligosides
134	11	evolution	Evolution
135	19	on	of
140	16		α-receptors
142	12	Cardoxyalkanoyl	carboxyalkanoyl
142	2nd last	norepinephrine	norepinephrine
142	last	tissue	tissues
144	21	Hambrg	Hamberg



000443949